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ARTICLE XV.

RAILROADS OF BELGIUM.

IN a former Number, [Mon. Chron. Vol. I. p. 89,] we gave a brief notice of the system of railroads established in Belgium, entirely at the charge and under the direction of the central government of the country. The expenses are all defrayed from appropriations from the public treasury, and all the income is of course for the benefit of the treasury. That article gave some account of the origin and cost of the work, and a notice of its operations for the first nine months of the year 1839. We shall now give a more full description of the system of works, with a history of its operation to the beginning of the present year.

The Minister of public works, Mr. Charles Rogier, under whose superintendence these great improvements are carried on, is entitled to the fullest credit, for having laid before the public, in his report to the legislative chambers, a most clear and intelligible account of the extent and cost of the work, the dimensions and character of the different constructions, the character and cost of the *materiel*, the rates of fare and freight, the expenses of operation, and the receipts, in all the varieties of detail, that can be desired. Our difficulty will be to present in the condensed view, which only we can give, so much of the information as will satisfy the reader, in a form which will be intelligible.

The system of works authorized by law is yet incomplete. When completed, the whole length of the several lines of railroad will be 113 leagues, of 5,000 French metres, of 350 English miles; and

the present estimated cost of the roads, stations, and materiel, is 125,664,707 francs, or \$23,877,054. The length of roads already completed, so far as to be already in operation, and producing an income at the commencement of the year, was 67 leagues, or 208 miles. This length of line embraces 14 sections, which have been successively opened from 1835 to 1840. The length of lines and parts of lines yet to be opened is 46 leagues, or 142 miles.

The cost of 208 miles of road already incurred, amounts to 62,144,584 francs, under the following heads of expenditure, viz. :

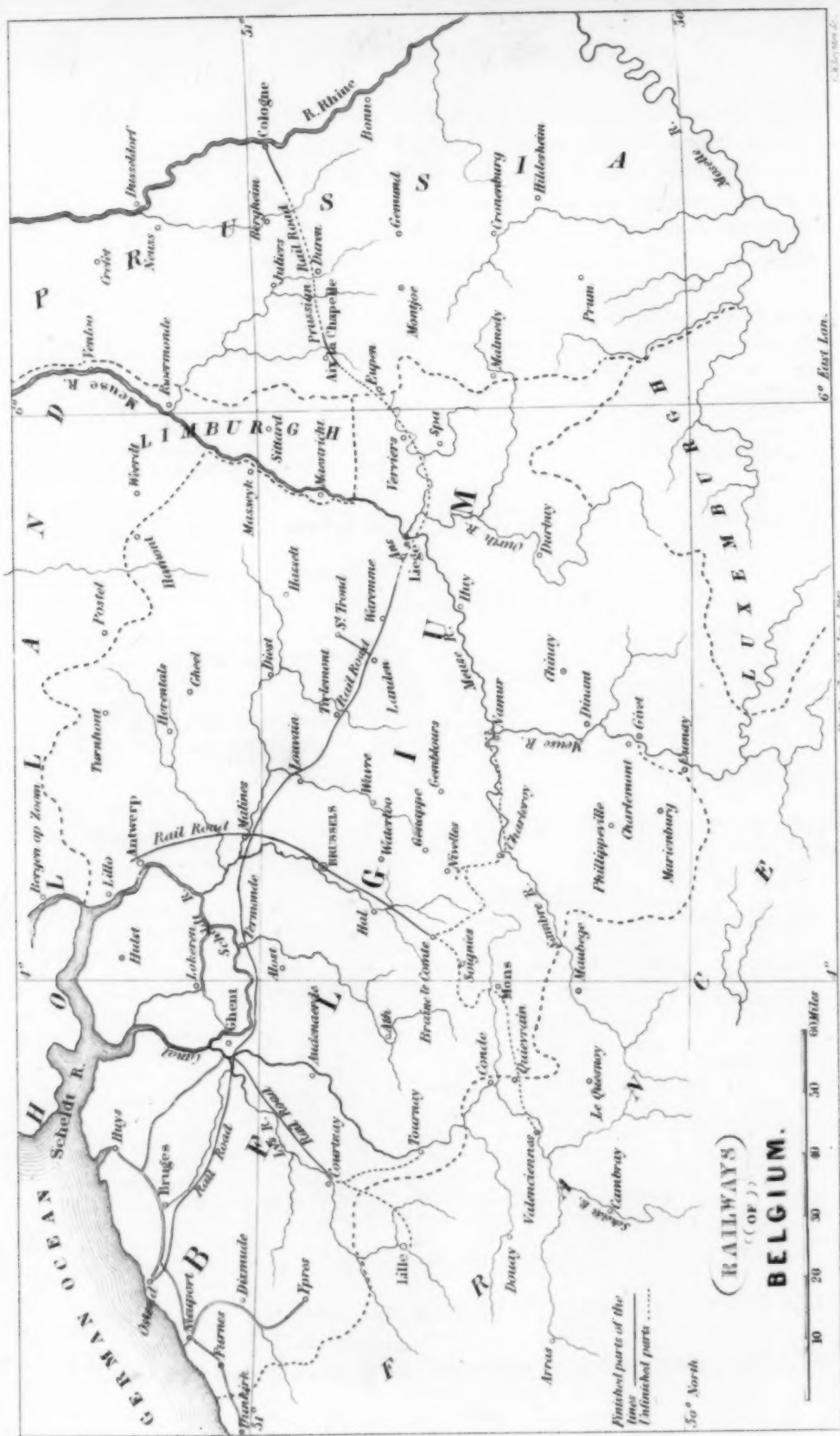
For the road itself,	44,815,514
For stations, &c.	3,916,583
For the materiel, viz., locomotives, cars, &c.	11,758,910
General expenses, personal, &c.	1,653,577
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	62,144,584
Expended on parts of the line not yet opened,	15,768,623
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Total expenditures to Jan. 1, 1841,	77,909,207 frcs.
<i>Estimate for the completion of the Works.</i>	
For completing lines in operation,	3,334,500
For completing the whole materiel,	3,778,500
For completing the sections not opened,	40,642,500
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Expenditure to be made,	47,755,500
Total expenditure to Jan. 1, 1841,	77,909,207
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Total cost of the work,	125,664,707 frcs

The expenditures already incurred may be more particularly classified under the following heads :

For purchase of lands and compensation for damages, including 198,688 francs for cost of legal proceedings,	15,044,363 frcs.
For works of excavation and embankment, works of masonry and other constructions, and laying foundations of railway, chiefly expended in compensation of labor among the laboring class of the population,	24,267,345
Wood, for the foundation of the railroad, furnished principally by farmers, and giving a value to products, which would otherwise have afforded them little profit,	2,723,592
For 49,000,000 kilograms [48,243 tons] of iron for rails, and their accessories only, the supply of which has contributed essentially to give profitable employment to the forges of the country,	17,314,710
For buildings of various descriptions at more than thirty stations,	3,109,371
For fixtures, such as reservoirs, turning tables, &c.	807,212
For the materiel for transportation, or 122 locomotives, 108 tenders, 528 passenger cars, 673 merchandise cars, and 136 working cars, with the furniture of each,	10,979,160
Various machines, cranes, weighing scales, pumps, &c.	807,212

The amount expended on account of construction in the year 1840, was 11,915,076 francs.

These railroads lead from Brussels, the capital of the kingdom, by



routes for the most part nearly direct, through the most populous and productive part of the country to nearly all the principal towns. They form two main lines, crossing each other nearly at right angles, and each branching in several directions. The shortest of these lines runs nearly north and south, and consists of two parts, the first part extending from Brussels north to Antwerp, and the other south and southwest to Mons, and the French frontier, in the direction of Valenciennes. The other line runs nearly east and west, beginning at Ostend, on the British Channel, and passing through, or by Bruges, Ghent, and Termonde, to Malines, where it crosses the other line nearly at right angles, and proceeds thence through Louvain, Tirlemont, to Liege, and thence into the Prussian territory, and to Aix la Chapelle and Cologne. A part of this extension of the line, in the Prussian territory, is already constructed by authority of the Prussian government. The branches are three in number: the first, leading from Ghent, on the western line, to Courtray, and to the French frontier towards Lille, in France, and by a second branching to Tournay; the second, from Braine le Comte, on the southern line, to Charleroy and Namur; and the third from Landen, on the eastern line, to St. Trond. The town of Malines, which is thirteen miles north of Brussels, on the route to Antwerp, thus becomes the centre of communication for the whole kingdom. It is consequently the central point of the operations of the railroad, and the seat of its principal establishments, of various kinds.

The north and west line is finished from Brussels to Antwerp, and from Brussels to Tubise, three miles south of Hal; as is also the east and west line, near the whole length of the kingdom, from Ostend to Malines, and from Malines to Ans, three miles from Liege. The branch from Ghent, as far as Courtray, 27 miles, and also from Landen to St. Trond, are also finished. The remainder of the eastern line, from Ans, by Liege to the Prussian frontier; of the southern line from Tubise to the French frontier; and also of the second branch, from Courtray to the French frontier, and to Tournay, as well as the third branch, from Braine le Comte to Charleroy and Namur, remain to be finished. The following table shows the lengths and the cost of the respective lines.

	Miles.	Cost.	Cost per mile.
<i>North Line</i> , Brussels to Antwerp, completed,	28½	\$1,998,800	\$71,400
<i>West Line</i> , Malines to Ostend, "	79	3,442,800	43,500
<i>East Line</i> , Malines to Ans, "	55	3,707,500	67,400
<i>Southern Line</i> , Brussels to Quievrain,* 14 miles, finished,	51	2,901,300	57,000
<i>East Line</i> , the part unfinished, Ans to Prussian frontier,	28	3,704,000	132,300

* On the French frontier, ten miles from Valenciennes.

Branch, Landen to St. Trond, completed,	7	263,200	37,600
Branch, Ghent to Courtray, "	20½	872,000	32,900
Branch, Courtray to French frontier, and to Tournay, unfinished,	21	1,436,400	68,800
Branch, Braine to Charleroy and Namur, unfinished,	50	2,470,000	49,400
Junction of north and south stations, Brussels, unfinished,	24	87,400	38,800

In the above statement, fractions are omitted. The whole length of all the lines, as before stated, is 350 miles. The cost, exclusive of the *matériel*, is \$20,924,205; and the average cost per mile, 59,783. The cost of the *matériel* is \$2,952,089. Of this cost the sum of \$14,802,749 was expended previous to the 1st of January last, and \$9,073,545 remained to be expended for the completion of the works.

About 65 miles of the road already completed, consists of a double track, including the whole of the north line; a considerable part of the west line, between Malines and Ghent; and a part of the east line, from Malines to Louvain, together with some portions of the same line east of Louvain. A considerable portion of the work which remains for the completion of these lines, consists of the construction of the second tracks. There are also already laid turnout and other extra tracks at the various stations, amounting in all to 22 miles of single track.

It will be perceived, that there is great diversity in the cost of the different lines of railroad. This is owing to the varieties in the face of country, and the nature of the obstacles to be encountered. It has been generally supposed, that the face of country is for the most part even, and consequently such as to present few obstacles to the construction of the railroad. This, on many parts of the several lines is not the case. From Brussels to Antwerp, the route is nearly level; but it crosses a number of rivers and canals, requiring expensive bridges. There are three bridges of 36 to 40 feet spring over the Senne; one of 80 feet in two arches over the Dyle; a draw bridge over the canal of Louvain; a bridge of 260 feet length, and 160 feet opening, in 6 arches, with a draw over the Nethe. The line from Malines to Ostend is almost entirely level, but it crosses a number of rivers and canals, requiring expensive works. The eastern line is much more expensive, crossing deep valleys requiring embankments of 50 to 60 feet in height, with cuttings of 30 to 45 feet in depth, and a subterranean gallery, or tunnel, of nearly 3,000 feet in length. There are also many bridges for the passage of the common roads over the railway, and for the passage of the railway over roads and streams. On the route from Louvain to Ans, there is an ascent mostly gradual, but in some places exceeding 30

feet in a mile, amounting in all to 492 feet. From Ans to Liege, in a space of 3 miles, is a descent of 360 feet, over which the transit is accomplished by means of 2 inclined planes, served by fixed engines of 360 horse power. From Liege to the Prussian frontier, a distance of 25 miles, the line of the road, after crossing the rivers Meuse and Ourthe on costly bridges, rises to a height of 650 feet, pursuing the winding valley of the river Vesdre, repeatedly crossing the stream on no less than 25 bridges, and penetrating rocky elevations by means of 18 tunnels. On the southern line, and on the branch to Namur, there are also expensive obstacles to be overcome. There are 2 tunnels, at Braine le Comte, and at Fayt 15 bridges over the Sambre and the Haine, and various other works of considerable expense. The grade of the road on these two lines rises to a considerable height.

The rails used in these works are 4.50, 4.57, or 5 metres in length, and vary in weight from 80 to 125 kilograms each; one parcel only being of 80 kilograms, a small part 90, a large part 99, and the residue 112 1-2 kilograms for rails of 4 1-2 metres, and 125 for those of 5 metres. The rails of lightest description were procured in 1834, being in English weight about 36 pounds to the yard in length, the rails of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway being probably adopted as the model. The other purchases of that year were of 40 to 41 pounds weight per yard. In 1836, '7, and '8, the purchases were of rails of about 44 pounds per yard; and in September, 1838, and most of the purchases since made, rails of 51 pounds per yard were procured. This progressive increase in the weight of the rails used, shows that experience there, as well as on the railroads of this country, has indicated the policy of submitting to a heavier expenditure for giving greater solidity to the track. The cost of rails used, varied in the course of the whole period, from 239 to 457 francs per 1,000 kilograms; that is, from \$89.11 to \$46.15 per ton English. These prices were considerably higher than the cost of rails during the same period in England, and higher than English rails delivered in this country without duty. The prices paid in successive years were, in 1834, 360 francs per 1,000 kilograms, or French ton; in 1835, 370 to 380 francs; in 1836, 440 to 450 francs; in 1837, 418 to 457 francs; in 1838, 426 to 340; in 1839, 340 to 370; and in 1840, 340 to 239. The highest price was paid in January, 1837, and the lowest in December, 1840, the difference being nearly one half. The prices paid within the same period in England for rails used on the Boston and Worcester railroad, varied from £9.2.6 to £12 sterling; and the cost, delivered on the line of the road, including all expenses, varied from about \$53 to \$68 per ton. On this last-named road, also, the recommendations of experience have

led to the introduction of heavier rails on the second track, than were adopted on the establishment of the first. The weight of the rails laid upon it in 1833, 4' and 5' was from 40 to 41 pounds per yard; those imported in 1838 were of 47 pounds, and those in 1841, of 60 pounds per yard. The rails of the two first descriptions, being placed upon chairs of 15 pounds weight at each support, and those of the latter description on chairs of 21 pounds at the ends of each rail only.

The cost of chairs on the Belgian railroads was from 255 to 149 francs per 1,000 kilograms, or \$43 to \$29 per ton. The cost of pins and keys was from 740 to 480 francs per 1,000 kilograms or 143 to \$93 per ton. This is a good deal cheaper than the prices paid for these articles in this country, but not cheaper than the cost in England.

The whole quantity of rails furnished to the 31st of December, 1840, was 33,343,468 kilograms; of chairs, 14,329,246 kilograms; and of pins and keys, 1,567,351 kilograms, at a cost of 17,314,710 francs. The amount laid on the parts of road already in operation, is 24,077,000 kilograms, and the cost 12,832,199 francs. The amounts supplied for the parts of the roads not opened, is 9,251,000 kilograms, and the cost 4,482,510 francs. It will be perceived from this statement that the weight of chairs exceeds two fifths that of the rails.

The grades of the railroads of Belgium are in general extremely favorable for rapid travelling, and a moderate expenditure of locomotive power. On the whole of the northern line from Brussels to Antwerp, and the western, from Malines to Ostend, the inclinations are so slight, that the grade, for all purposes of practical utility, is equivalent to a level. On a considerable portion of the eastern line there are greater inclinations, though with a few exceptions they are hardly greater than are sufficient for the convenient draining of the track. After nearly a level track from Malines to Louvain, we there encounter an ascent of 22 feet in a mile for a distance of about 4 miles. From Tirlemont to Ans, there is an ascent nearly uniform for 25 miles of 15 feet in a mile; and after passing by stationary power the two descending planes of 357 feet in 2 1-4 miles from Ans to Liege, there is another gradual ascent along the valley of the Vesdre, for 23 miles, to the Prussian frontier, near Aix-la-Chapelle, averaging 26 feet in a mile, but rising for 2 1-2 miles near the frontier, to 50 feet per mile. Along this valley, for the purpose of avoiding inconvenient curves, the track is carried through the projecting points of highland and ledges, by a succession of eighteen tunnels, and by successive bridges from one side of the river to the other. The ascent above mentioned of 50 feet in a mile, is much the steepest inclination on

any of the Belgian railroads, with the exception of the inclined planes at Ans, and the termination at the Prussian frontier is much the highest point of the railroad, it being 836 feet above the level of the sea. From this point there is a descent along nearly the whole line of the proposed extension of the route in the Prussian territory, of 40 miles to Cologne, amounting to 678 feet. This portion of the route passes through three tunnels of considerable extent, and over an inclined plane, descending 157 feet in less than a mile, on which will be a stationary steam-engine. This railroad, therefore, from Louvain to Cologne, a distance of a little more than a hundred miles, passes over declivities nearly equal to those between Boston and Springfield, with the disadvantage of three planes, which are so steep as to prevent their being travelled by means of locomotive power. No other portion of the Belgian railroad presents the same difficulties. The greatest inclination on any other part, is on the southern route from Brussels, on its approach to Braine le Comte, of about 25 feet in a mile for seven miles. This plane, near its summit, passes through the tunnel, and from this point the route descends by smaller inclinations to Mons, on the line to Valenciennes in France. The branch from Ghent to Courtray, Lisle, and Tournay, is nearly level, and the Charleroy and Namur branch, although passing over a comparatively elevated country, has no inconvenient grades.

The railroad is most liberally provided with buildings for the accommodation of every branch of the service. The buildings of various descriptions, are about 200 in number. Houses are provided at most of the stations for the residence of the officers, as well as halls, rooms, storehouses, workshops, and sheds, for the accommodation of passengers, for the receipt of merchandise, for the deposit and repair of locomotives and cars, and the storing of coal and wood. Some of these buildings are of large dimensions, and they are built part of brick and part of wood. At Malines, there is a car-house 410 feet in length by 80 in width, 4 engine houses 83 feet by 40, a forge and foundry 215 feet by 44, several workshops and a large number of storehouses and other buildings. At Brussels are three passenger halls, a freight-house 150 feet by 90; 2 repair shops, 120 feet by 33; 2 car-houses 225 feet, and 108 feet in length, with other buildings. At the other stations are buildings, adapted in their dimensions to the amount of business at each.

Of the 122 locomotives on the road, 18 have cylinders of 14 inches diameter, 5 of 13 inches, 41 of 12 1-2 inches, and of this class are the greater number recently built; 38 of 12 inches, and 20 of 11 inches. Of this number 99 were in good condition on the 1st of January last, 23 were under repair, and 6 were yet under construc-

tion. The whole amount of service which has been performed by the engines to the above date, is 641,762 leagues, or 1,989,462 English miles; and the amount performed in the year 1840, was 236,221 leagues, or 732,285 miles. The greatest distance travelled by any one engine is 51,773 miles; * the next greatest, 46,376; and the third, 43,465 miles. These three engines have all been upon the road from 1835, and each has once undergone a thorough repair. Several others have performed to nearly the same amount. The greatest performance by any engine in the year 1840 was 16,293 miles, and the next greatest, 15,400 miles.

There are 528 passenger carriages, of which 1 is a royal Berlin, 9 ordinary berlins, now disused, 96 diligences, or 1st class carriages; 205 chars-a-bancs, or 2d class, of which 46 are glazed, and 159 are without glass, and 217 are wagons or 3d class carriages, of which 121 are covered, and 96 are without cover. The chars-a-bancs were until the last 4 months without glass. There are in all 673 merchandise and freight cars, of all descriptions, and 136 for the service of the road, in construction and repairs. Of the freight cars, 44 are for the transport of cattle, 8 for horses, and 41 for carriages.

Having thus given a description of the rail-road and its *materiel*, we proceed to give some account of the operations upon it. The first object of attention was to provide for the transport of passengers; and at a more recent period provision was made for the conveyance of merchandise. The advance from year to year in the length of line open for use, the number of passengers transported in each successive year, with the amount of receipts for the transport of passengers and merchandise, are exhibited in the following table:

Year.	Miles Opened.	Number of Passengers.	Receipts from Passengers.	From merchandise and baggage.	Total of receipts.
1835.	13	421,439	268,997 frs.	000 frs.	268,997 frs.
1836.	13 to 27	771,307	825,133	000	825,133
1837.	43 to 88	1,384,577	1,399,989	16,994	1,416,983
1838.	88 to 160	2,238,303	2,935,817	162,015	3,097,833
1839.	160 to 192	1,952,731	3,636,544	613,281	4,249,825
1840.	192 to 207	2,199,319	4,046,950	1,288,217	5,335,167
Total,		9,067,676	13,113,431	2,080,507	15,193,938

The amounts received for baggage, included in the 5th column, were in 1837, 16,994 francs; in 1838, 103,421; in 1839, 132,514; and in 1840, 132,254. The residue of the amounts in this column was from freight and merchandise.

The following table shows the amount of the expenses of working

* There is an engine on the Boston and Worcester Railroad which from February 1836 to July 1841, ran with trains of passengers and freight, chiefly the former, 76,250 miles.

the road in each year ; the amount of net profits ; the cost of the part of the road opened at the end of each year ; the cost of the average distance opened during the year ; and the rate of profit per cent. on this average.

Year.	Current expenses.	Net profits.	Cost at end of year.	Cost of average.	Per cent. profit.
1835.	168,772	100,225	1,929,767	1,285,854	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
1836.	431,136	393,997	5,815,416	3,872,592	10
1837.	1,189,989	229,994	18,253,149	12,034,283	14.5
1838.	2,755,036	342,777	35,587,228	26,920,189	14
1839.	3,084,410	1,165,415	49,740,248	42,663,738	24
1840.	2,997,113	2,338,054	62,144,584	55,942,416	4
Total,	10,626,477	4,567,461			

The fares originally established for the conveyance of passengers in the four descriptions of carriages were, as nearly as they could be conveniently apportioned to the different sections, at the rate of 62 1-2 centimes per league for those travelling in berlins ; three fifths that amount, or 37 1-2 centimes for those in diligences ; two fifths, or 25 centimes for those in chars-a-bancs, and 12 1-2 centimes for those in wagons. These rates, as subsequent sections were opened, were slightly varied, specific rates being adopted for different sections, reference being had in part to convenient portions of a franc. The charge for the berlins was also considerably reduced. The average of the rates, when the line was extended from Ostend to Ans, was as follows : viz., for berlins, 3.83 francs per league, or 2 1-3 cents per mile English ; for diligences, 3.25 francs per league, or 2.1 cents per mile ; for chars-a-bancs, 2.20 francs per league, or 1 1-3 cents per mile : and for wagons, 1.33 francs per league, or .815 cts. per mile.

At these extremely low rates, so long as the operations of the road were confined to the route between the two cities of Brussels and Antwerp, and the populous intervening country, they afforded a considerable excess of receipts over the current expenses, and a liberal profit on the cost of that part of the road. But as soon as the travel was extended upon other routes, passing through less populous tracts of country, the receipts on all those routes were insufficient to defray the expenses. It was apparent, therefore, that the rates of fare were too low, and that as the system should be still farther extended, unless some remedy were applied, the result would be ruinous. The obvious remedy was to raise the rates of fare. Accordingly, by a decree of February 3, 1839, a new tariff of fares was established, which went into effect on the 20th of the same month. Berlins, which from the beginning had carried few passengers, from this time appear to have been disused. By the new tariff the deviation from

the exact proportion per mile was greater than before. On each of the routes between the several stations, although they varied from four to six leagues in distance, 2 francs were charged for passengers in diligences, 1.25 in chars-a-bancs, and 1 franc in wagons. The charge was thus increased in some instances on the wagon fare 100 per cent., and the average increase was near 60 per cent. On the other two classes, the increase was in general about 25 per cent. This increase of fare, as might be expected, created a good deal of dissatisfaction, and in some places, temporarily at least, a large diminution of the local travel; and doubtless some slight decrease of the general travel, though to what extent, it is difficult to ascertain. An increase of fare almost uniformly produces in some minds a feeling of exasperation, and a determination which is maintained for a while, to avoid travelling on the road as much as possible. In consequence of the complaint and diminution in certain places of the local travel, some modifications were made in August and October of these rates. The rates, as finally established and in force on the 1st of January, 1840, average as follows, viz.: in diligences, 4.07 francs per league, or 2.45 cents per mile; in chars-a-bancs, 2.50 francs per league, or 1.57 cents per mile; and in wagons, 2.03 francs per league, or 1.22 cents per mile. The rates on particular sections are, of course, for the reason above stated, in some cases higher, and in some lower.

The effects produced by these changes in the rates of fare upon the number of passengers, and upon the amount of receipts, are exhibited as fully as can be done, in the following tables:

Number of Passengers of each class in 1838, 1839, and 1840.

	In berlins and diligences.	Chars-a-bancs.	Wagons.	Total.
1838	233,396	606,546	1,398,361	2,238,303
1839.	233,266	619,373	1,100,092	1,952,731
1840.	243,143	656,499	1,291,677	2,999,319

Amount of Receipts from Passengers in each year.

	Berlins and carriages. francs.	Chars-a-bancs. francs.	Wagons. francs.	Total. francs.
1838.	768,825	1,035,869	1,131,123	2,935,817
1839.	978,846	1,310,024	1,346,673	3,636,544
1840.	1,057,357	1,427,065	1,562,526	4,046,950

It appears from these comparative statements, that in the first year of the increased tariff there was a diminution of 285,572, and in the second of 38,984, in the whole number of passengers; but an increase in the former year of 500,727 francs, and in the latter of 1,111,140 francs in the amount of receipts. It will be perceived, that the diminution of numbers is in the passengers of the lowest class; and in comparing the number of passengers reported with the amount of receipts, it will be found that the falling off in numbers is almost exclu-

sively in the passengers for short distances, consisting mostly of those from one station to the next adjoining station. Indeed, it will be apparent, that a large proportion of the passengers in wagons must consist of travellers of this description, as the average amount paid by each wagon passenger is but 1 1-5th franc ; and that a much larger proportion of the passengers of the two other classes, particularly the first, travel longer distances. It is manifest, therefore, that the effect of a moderately increased fare in reducing the number of passengers, is confined chiefly to what is called the way travel, and in a great measure to persons who travel only from one station to the next adjoining station.

But in making these comparisons, and estimating the effects produced by the increase in the rate of fares, it is necessary to take into consideration the extension of the line of travel, by the opening of new sections of road within the three last years, and the increase of income from that source. The amount of this increase it is difficult to ascertain with much precision. The eastern line was extended to Waremmé and Ans, in April 1838, and the western to Bruges and Ostend, in August of the same year. The Courtray and St. Trond branches were opened in September and October, 1839, and the southern line from Brussels to Tubise in May, 1840. The receipts at the new stations do not show accurately the amount of increase, because a part of these receipts would otherwise have been realized at parts of the line previously opened, and because a part of the payments for the extended lines are made at the old stations. From a comparison of the various statements, however, we infer that the increased receipts, from the extension of the line, constitute more than half the augmented income of the years 1839 and 1840, independently of any augmentation from the increased rates of fare.

The amounts received in the respective years at Brussels, exclusive of what was received from the southern line, and also at Antwerp, may perhaps be regarded as the best test of the increased income derived from the increased rates of fare. The receipts at Brussels for the north and main lines, on account of passengers and baggage, amounted in 1838 to 847,268 francs ; in 1839 to 959,273 francs ; and in 1840 to 995,286 francs. And at Antwerp, in 1838, to 455,993 francs ; in 1839 to 505,033 francs ; and in 1840 to 523,157 francs. These figures show an increase of 10 and 13 per cent., in 1839, and of 14 and 17 per cent., in 1840 ; the smallest of which proportions on the aggregate receipts of 1838, would nearly double the net profits.

Another test, perhaps more satisfactory, is to compare the receipts from September 1, 1838, to March 1, 1839, with those of the corresponding months of the next year, in which two periods the

same extent of railroad was in operation, with the exception of the Courtray and St. Trond branches, opened September 8, and October 6, 1839. The whole receipts of the abovenamed months, in 1838, '9, amounted to 1,495,722 francs; and in 1839, '40, to 1,770,951 francs. If we deduct 125,000 francs as the amount accruing from the accession of the Courtray and St. Trond branches, during five months of the period, it leaves an augmentation to be attributed to the increase of fare, of 150,229 francs, which is equal to 10 per cent. on the produce of the former period.

It is apparent, however, from these facts, that the increased income, from the advance in the rates of fare, is in a less proportion than half the increase of the rates. Yet as an increase of receipts goes entirely to an increase of the net profits, the expenses being even somewhat less, in consequence of the reduced number of passengers; and as the income derived from the lower rates afforded an entirely inadequate compensation for the use of the great capital invested in the works, there can be no question of the propriety and expediency of the increase of the rates. The net income in 1838 amounted to only 1 1-4 per cent. on the cost of the works then in operation. In 1840, it amounted to 4 per cent. When the system of works shall be completed, and the system of management matured, it will probably be increased under the present rates of fare, which are still extremely low, to 7 or 8 per cent.

The above facts show also, in addition to a great number of similar facts derived from the history of English railways, that it is a difficult and costly process to repair the error of adopting too low rates of fare, by a subsequent increase of rates. The first and indispensable point for insuring success, is to place the rates of transportation lower than the cost of any rival mode of conveyance. Having attained this object, and at the same time furnished an easier, safer, and more speedy mode of conveyance than any other, the railroad is sure of commanding all the existing business. If the rates be graduated at this point, the increased ease and rapidity of the conveyance will go far to increase the amount of transportation beyond what was accomplished in all former modes. So also by a further reduction of fares below this point, the amount of travelling may be further increased; but after having reached the limit of the lowest cost of travelling by any other mode, not excepting going on foot, the increase of numbers can never be proportioned to the diminution of rates, unless it be on short routes, where the railroad fare is the only expense which the traveller incurs. On such routes, leading from a city of large population to a neighboring city, or other point of attraction, like that between Brussels and Antwerp, and like a few in England, the amount of travel may be greatly augmented by a reduction of

the cost on other routes, the increase to be derived from creating a new motive to travelling by its mere cheapness, must be much less considerable. But in all these cases of increased travel, to be induced by the cheapness of the rate, and not by the necessities or established habits of the travelling public, the effect is produced by the conviction of those who travel, that the rate is cheap, and that they get a full and satisfactory *quid pro quo* for the money which they expend. To produce this conviction, it is necessary that the rate should be low in the estimation of the parties concerned, and consequently as low or lower than any to which they have been accustomed. People, of course, judge of the cheapness of the rate by other rates which they have paid, or with which they have been conversant. A reduced rate, therefore, is considered low, and an increased rate, of course, is high. A man who has been accustomed for three years to travel from Malines to Brussels or Antwerp for 60 centimes, will not be easily persuaded that 100 centimes, for the same route, is cheap. The effect of an increase of charge, therefore, on a short route, is invariably to diminish the number of travellers below what it was previously, and what it would have been, if they had not been accustomed to a lower fare. Many people regard the increased fare as an imposition which they are inclined to resent, or as an act of extortion, to which they reluctantly submit. Hence the expedient of increasing the rates of fare, when the income of a railroad has been found inadequate to its object, has frequently disappointed the expectations of proprietors. This disappointment has been experienced on routes, on which, but for the previous experiment of too low a rate, a reasonable compensation would have been paid by the public, with the utmost cheerfulness. That such was the condition of the government of Belgium with regard to a portion of the public, there can be no doubt. They have suffered a serious deficit of income from their splendid work, from having made too low an estimate of the cost of working the vast machine, and consequently placing their rates of compensation too low. They have since attempted to repair the error. The attempt will ultimately succeed; but not until a large sum will have been lost to the public treasury, by the previous unsuccessful experiment.

The rates of fare now in force on the railroads are, perhaps, lower than on any other extensive routes, in Europe or in this country. The grades are such, from the even surface of the country, as to admit of travelling with the least expense of power, and the comparative population is such as to offer a vast number of passengers. These are advantages which few railroads can possess. The fares are less than half the rates which are charged on most of the long routes in England. They are not, however, a vast deal lower than are charged

on some of the railroads in Massachusetts,* where the roads have higher grades, and consequently require a greater expense of locomotive power, and where the population is much less dense than in Belgium.

There is a fact to be considered, which practically makes a greater difference between the fares paid on the railroads of Belgium and on those of Massachusetts, than would be inferred from the table of fares. On the former, the passengers in carriages of the first class, form much the smallest of the three classes; and in 1840 they constituted but a *ninth part* of the whole number; while those in carriages of the third class constituted more than half. On the Massachusetts railroads, on the contrary, the passengers of the first class are far the most numerous, and constitute about nine tenths of the whole number. This difference in the habits of the passengers, arising in part from the condition of the most numerous portion of travellers, and partly from the greater difference of charge on the roads of Belgium, produces a most favorable comparative effect on the income of the American roads. The use of the second class carriages in this country is confined chiefly to laborers in their working attire, and to emigrants. The carriages are uniformly covered, comfortably ventilated, and amply supplied with seats. The whole

* The following table shows the rates of fare on some of the railroads in this country and in England, compared with those of Belgium:

	Rate per mile.		
	1st class.	2d class.	3d class.
Railroads of Belgium,	\$.02 48	\$.01 57	\$.01 24
Malines to Ostend, 79 miles, 8.75 francs,	2.1	1.38	1.02
Malines to Ans, 55 miles, 7 francs,	2 42	1.64	1 21
Cologne to Aix-la-Chapelle, 40 miles, \$1.41,	3.5	2.64	1.75
London and Birmingham, 112 1-2 miles,	6.4	5.32	4.26
Grand Junction, 97 1-2 miles,	5.66	4.18	2.70
Great Western, 118 1-4 miles,	5.75	3.50	
London and Southwestern, 76 3-4 miles,	6.25 } 5.60 }	3.75	
London and Brighton, 56, 14s. 6d.	6.21	4.07	
London and Greenwich, 3 3-4 miles,	7	4 5	3.25
London and Croydon,	4.66	3 5	
London and Blackwall, 3 1-2	3.42	1.7	
Boston and Worcester, 45 miles, \$1.50,	3.33	2.22	
Boston and Worcester, to passengers over the <i>Western</i> ,	2.77	1.85	
Boston to Albany, 199 miles, \$5.50,	2.76	1.84	
<i>Western</i> , Worcester to Albany, 155 miles,	2.74	1.83	
" Worcester to Springfield, 54 miles,	2.76	1.84	
" Springfield to Albany, 100 miles, \$3	3.	2.	
Boston to Springfield, 99 miles, \$3,	3 03	2.02	
Worcester to Norwich, 59 miles, \$2,	3 39	2.26	
Boston to Providence, 41 miles, \$1.50,	3.65	2.44	
<i>Eastern</i> , Boston to Portsmouth, 54 miles,	3.70	2 46	
Boston to Lowell, 26 miles, \$1,	3.84	2.56	
Boston to Nashua, 40 1-4 miles, \$1.50,	3.75	2.50	
Boston to New Bedford, 55 miles, \$2,	3.63	2.42	

number of passengers conveyed on the railroads of Belgium, from 1835 to 1840 inclusive, is 9,067,676 ; of whom were carried in berlins 46,952, in diligences 844,955, in chars-a-bancs 2,473,108, and in wagons 5,702,661. The receipts from the passengers in berlins amounted to 156,553 francs ; from those in diligences to 3,087,327 francs ; chars-a-bancs, 4,579,247 francs ; and wagons, 5,290,304 ; making a total of 13,113,431 francs, or \$2,491,552. The average amount paid by each passenger in berlins, since the opening of the road, is 3.33 francs ; in diligences, 3.65 ; in chars-a-bancs, 1.85 ; and in wagons, 93 centimes. The average amount paid by each wagon passenger in 1840 was 1.20 francs, the average distance travelled by each being about 10 miles.

The comparative increase of travelling in the summer months, over that of the winter months, is less in Belgium than in Massachusetts. The number of passengers in the several months of 1840 was as follows, viz. : January, 113,730 ; February, 118,647 ; March, 136,620 ; April, 157,649 ; May, 198,178 ; June, 233,944 ; July, 228,063 ; August, 283,367 ; September, 253,726 ; October, 195,535 ; November, 151,133 ; and December, 128,727 ; total, 2,199,319.

The income derived from extra baggage was about 132,000 francs. Passengers are allowed to carry baggage not exceeding 20 kilograms in weight without charge, and to keep it under their own custody. If it be placed in the baggage car, a ticket is given, for which there is a charge of 10 centimes, or two cents. On all baggage exceeding 20 kilograms to each passenger, there is a specific charge for each route, per weight or measurement. This charge is equal to about half the diligence fare for a passenger, on each 100 kilograms or 220 lbs. in weight. If the baggage be light, it pays at the rate of 100 kilograms for a quarter of a cube metre, or about 9 cubic feet.

The amount of merchandise transported by the railroad was small, as has been seen from one of the foregoing tables, until the two last years, no adequate provision having been made for it. Most articles of merchandise are charged with freight, in three classes. The first class, on which is charged the lowest rate of freight, consists of stone, bricks, coal, and other minerals, earth, ashes, manure, iron in bars and pigs, grain, fish, beer, and a few other articles. The second class consists of articles of a higher value, and embraces those not included in the first, except articles declared to be fragile, which are therefore embraced in a third class. Light articles, which weigh less than 100 kilograms, for a quarter of a cube metre [8.8 feet] are charged at the rate of 100 kilograms for each quarter cube, measurement. Wool, cotton, and hops, are charged by this rule, under the second general class. A specific rate for each class

is fixed from station to station, between each principal station. These rates are nearly, but not precisely, in proportion to distance. For example ; from Antwerp to Brussels, distance 9 leagues, the several classes of freight per 100 kilograms, are, 1st, 55 centimes, 2d, 65 centimes, 3d, 90 centimes. These rates are equal to 95 cents, \$1.12, and \$1.55 per 2,000 lbs. English. From Malines to Ostend, 25 1-2 leagues, the rates of freight are, 1st class, 1.40, 2d 1.60, and 3d class 2.20. From Malines to Ans, 17 3-4 leagues, 1st class, 1.05, 2d 1.20, 3d 1.70. From Ostend to Ans, 43 1-4 leagues, or 134 miles, 1st class, 2.20 per 100 kilograms, or \$3.79 per 2,000 lbs. ; 2d class, 2.50 per 100 kilograms, or \$4.32 per 2,000 lbs. ; 3d class, 3.90 per kilogram, or \$6.71 per 2,000 lbs.

The tariff above described does not apply to all descriptions of property transported. There is a special tariff for money in specie or paper and securities, graduated by a scale of per centage, varying according to amount, and the distance conveyed. These articles are required to be sealed up and labelled in the manner specified. There is also a special tariff for private carriages. Two two-wheeled carriages, or one four-wheeled carriage, occupying a single wagon, pay 25 francs for a distance under 10 leagues ; 40 francs for 11 to 20 leagues, and so on to 80 francs for 41 leagues and over. There is also a special tariff for cattle and horses. A single horse pays 15 francs for a distance under 10 leagues ; 25 francs for 11 to 20 leagues, and 50 francs for 41 leagues and over. Two horses conveyed in a single wagon pay 20 francs for less than 10 leagues, 34 francs for 10 to 20 leagues, and 65 francs for 41 leagues and over. Hogs and sheep pay 9 francs for 10, and 14 francs for 20, for the shortest distance, 16 and 25 francs for 11 to 20 leagues, 29 and 43 francs for 41 leagues and over. When cattle and horses are to be transported, 24 hours previous notice is required.

The amount of annual expenditures has been stated above. It will be perceived, that although there was a considerable extension of the line of works in the last year, and an increase of locomotive travel, from 174,261 leagues in 1839, to 236,221 in 1840, there was at the same time a reduction in the aggregate of current expenses, from 3,084,410 francs in the former year, to 2,997,113 in the latter. There was a saving of over 100,000 francs in the charge of maintenance of way, and an equal amount in the department of transportation, but an augmentation of \$125,000 in the collection and freight department. The classification of expenses in 1840 was as follows, viz. : for the *police and maintenance of road*, 630,814 francs ; *transportation department*, 1,835,772 francs ; and *collection and freight department*, 530,520 francs.

The expenses under the first of the above-named classes, are, for

engineers and superintendents, 81,456 francs; for office expenses, 3,724 francs; repairs and furniture of stations, and for various tools and materials, 20,512 francs; and for salaries and wages of superintendents and workmen employed on the various sections of the road, 525,122 francs. The expenses under this last head, embracing the chief cost of repairs and police of road, exclusive of general superintendence and materials, average per mile, on the several lines, as follows: north line, from Brussels to Antwerp, \$614, per mile; western line, from Malines to Ostend, \$481; eastern line, from Malines to Ans, including the St. Trond branch, \$470; and from Ghent to Courtray, \$512.

The expenses under the second class, are distributed under the following heads:

For engineers, conductors, and superintendents,	102,157 francs.
Office expenses, printing, and postage,	5,488
Salaries and wages at the repair and other workshops at Malines,	157,035
Salaries and wages at the stations,	538,550
“ “ at the coaking ovens,	59,486
Fuel, coal 27,856 cube metres, and wood for kindling,	597,547
Oil, Gallipoli, and tallow,	73,533
Lighting, oil and candles,	10,807
Cleansing, sponge, cotton waste, soap, &c.	23,344
Metals, iron, copper, brass tubes, springs, wheel tires, &c.	174,078
Tools, materials for trimming shop, paints, &c.	43,747
Total,	1,835,772

The expenses under the third class are for

Officers and agents of various descriptions,	345,267 francs.
Office expenses, and printing,	30,914
Workmen, &c. employed at the various stations,	126,953
Furniture, indemnity for losses, &c.	27,393
Total,	530,527

The receipts of the year 1840, reduced to our currency, amounted to \$1,013,681, and the expenditures to \$569,451, leaving a net income of \$444,230.

The distance run by locomotives was 236,221 leagues, or 732,285 English miles. The gross receipts, therefore, amounted to an average of \$1,38.4 per mile; the expenses to 77.7 cents per mile, and the net income to 60.7 cents per mile.

The aggregate of transportation expenses averaged 47.6 cents per mile run; the cost of fuel, including coaking, 17 cents; the cost of oil and tallow 2 cents, and the cost of road repairs and police, 16 cents.

We do not find any information as to the comparative number of passenger and freight trains, or indeed whether the conveyance of

freight is limited to distinct trains. Nor are we informed of the number daily, on the several routes, the hours of departure, the rates of speed, or the number of carriages, or the weight of any of the trains. If we suppose the distance run by passenger trains to be proportioned to the amount received for passengers and baggage, it makes an aggregate of 573,600 miles. This computation makes no allowance for the appropriation of any part of the service of the locomotives, to work done in construction or repairs of the road, unless the produce of this service is included in the amount of income. The amount of receipts for passenger fare, is equal to an average of 7 francs 5 centimes per mile, viz., 1.85 francs in diligences, 2.48 in charr-a-bancs, and 2.72 in wagons. This gives an average of 14 passengers of the 1st class, 30 of the 2d, and 41 of the 3d, or 85 passengers in all, in each train, throughout all the lines.

It has been remarked, in a former part of this article, that the eastern line of railroad, is to be united at the Prussian frontier, near Aix-la-Chapelle, with a work to be constructed under the authority of the Prussian government, for extending the line of communication to Cologne, one of the principal cities on the Rhine. This Prussian railroad is already completed from Cologne to Aix-la-Chapelle, a distance of 40 miles, and was opened on the 6th of September last. There are two trains daily, which leave Cologne at 8 o'clock in the morning and 3 1-2 in the afternoon, and Aix-la-Chapelle at 8 1-4 A. M. and 3 3-4 P. M., meeting at Duren, 24 miles from Cologne, at 11 A. M. and 5 P. M., and performing the journey through in 3 hours. The fare, in carriages of the 1st class, is 2 thalers, which is equal to \$1.41, or 3 1-2 cents per mile; in the 2d class, 1 1-2 thalers, or 2 1-3 cents per mile; and in the 3d class, 1 thaler, or 1 3-4 cent per mile. The fare from Cologne to Duren in the 1st class is 1 thaler 5 silbergros, and from Duren to Aix-la-Chapelle 25 silbergros, and in the other classes in like proportion. These fares are about equal to the rates charged on the railroads in Massachusetts. This line of railroad is of great importance in uniting the Belgian system of works with the Rhine, and opening a direct line of communication from Belgium, Holland, and England, to Germany. From Cologne, the line is continued by a regular steamboat communication to Strasbourg, from which point it is again extended by the splendid railroad, 87 miles in length, lately completed to Mulhausen, and to Bale, in Switzerland. At Cologne, also, it will be united with the railroads about to be extended over the whole of northern Germany, many of which are already in successful operation.

From the termination of the two southern lines on the French frontier, provision has been made by the French government for their extension to Valenciennes and Lille, each about ten miles.

The works on both these French portions of the railroad have been in progress during the past summer, and probably both will be completed, as soon as the Belgian portions of the same lines. At no remote period there is reason to believe that the long meditated project of a railroad from Valenciennes, and perhaps also from Lille to Paris, will be accomplished, in which case the most expeditious route from Paris to northern Germany will be that of the railroads of Belgium, through Brussels, Liege, and Cologne. The route of Valenciennes, Brussels, and Ostend, will also be one of the most eligible between Paris and London.

In anticipation of the extension of the two southern lines of railroad to the border of France, a convention was entered into on the 10th of December 1840, between the governments of Belgium and France, for adopting a joint system, by which merchandise and property may be regularly and safely transmitted from one country to the other, and through each country, by their respective methods of transport. This arrangement is made on the basis of mutual advantages and obligations, the administration of each government being responsible for the faithful execution of it, within their respective territories. The officers in charge of the transportation in the two countries are made responsible for the payment of the duties at the custom-houses on the frontiers of the two countries.

ARTICLE XV.

THE KINGDOM OF THE NETHERLANDS.

It will be seen, from the brief statistical note upon the kingdom of the Netherlands, in a former Number, [Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 51,] that with an extent of territory about equal to the states of Massachusetts and Connecticut, that country has about three times the number of inhabitants of those two states. This crowded population, without even the advantages of a productive soil, or a genial climate, have besides procuring for themselves the means of subsistence, become the proprietors of a vast accumulated wealth. These facts alone would be sufficient to prove the people of that country possessed of the virtues of industry and frugality. But when to these proofs of their effective industry, are added the continued labors which are required of them to overcome the physical disadvantages of their situation, and to preserve them from being submerged in the

deep, we are compelled to concede to them the merit of perseverance and indefatigable industry, beyond any other people of the old continent.

Although almost every one may be supposed to have some knowledge of the character, habits, and condition of the people of this country, this knowledge is in general extremely vague and imperfect. The people and their habits have been for many years but imperfectly described, and it has been their fate to be often misrepresented. The deficiency of accurate knowledge of the country, and the injustice with which it has been treated by those who have attempted to describe it, are strongly, and we doubt not truly set forth in an article under the signature of M. MARMIER, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. "I do not know a country," this writer remarks, "more harshly and more unjustly treated in the descriptions of travellers, than Holland. A great number of foreigners visit it every year, and might learn to understand it as it really is. But some arrive there as if they were discharging an obligation of conscience to pass through the Hague, to cast a look at Amsterdam, to inscribe their names in the cabin of Peter the Great, and to take their departure. Others come with ideas already formed, from a point of view taken in advance, and they would feel dishonored if on their return they were to judge of the country differently from their preconceived opinion. What epigrams, both in verse and prose, have not been made upon the avarice, and the narrowness of heart of the Dutch! How many charming jokes upon their smoking, and the daily washing of their streets and houses! There are people who still sincerely believe that the pavement of brick is scrubbed every morning; that it is forbidden to sneeze, and still more to spit in the streets; that hens and cats are banished from this El Dorado of neatness; and that on arriving there one is obliged to take off his boots and put on Turkish slippers. There are people who think that a Dutchman, a pipe, and a glass of gin, form but one and the same individual. I can comprehend that the Duke of Alba, in his fervor of a Catholic, and his Spanish hatred against a people of revolted Protestants, should have exclaimed, in looking at the sunken places of Holland, that it was the country nearest to Hell. I can conceive that Voltaire, irritated by his dealings with the booksellers of Amsterdam, might have uttered the bitter exclamation, "*adieu, canaux, canards, canaille*;" but that the English and the Germans, whose habits have so many points of resemblance with those of the Dutch, should have indulged in so much ill-natured raillery against this honest people, is what I should not have expected. The poet Butler says, it is a country 'which draws fifty feet of water,' &c."

After quoting other pleasantries, made at the expense of this

people by English writers, and remarking that the Germans have judged them with even more severity than other nations, this writer proceeds to account for this prevalent disposition to promulgate these unjust opinions. He attributes it, in great part, to the rapidity with which foreigners usually visit Holland. It is not a country, he says, which at the first approach seduces the mind of the traveller. To know and appreciate it, one must observe it with attention, and view it under its different aspects, as those modest flowers, of which one does not discover the delicate and partly veiled tints, but by separating their half opened leaves one by one. "For myself, I acknowledge, that on setting my foot upon the Dutch soil, on my return from a voyage to the North, with my mind pre-occupied with its grand landscapes, I experienced a kind of painful surprise, which resembled a disenchantment. 'Adieu,' said I, 'the lofty mountains of Norway, with their crown of firs, and their belt of clouds. Adieu the limpid lakes of Sweden, where the azure of the sky is reflected as in a mirror, the mysterious valleys protected by *Hulda*, the divinity of solitude, and the cascade where the *Stroemkarl* makes the harmonious chords of his silken harp resound. Standing upon the deck of the boat, I contemplate the new landscape which opens before my eyes. I see nothing but a long plain of a uniform color, the yellow river which escapes in the distance, and the heavens covered with clouds. Here and there a few wind-mills moving painfully their long arms to the light breeze which impels them. A little brick house, washed and scrubbed, as for a feast-day, rises upon the banks of a pond, between a hornbean hedge trimmed to a fan shape, and an ivy of the form of a sugar-loaf. A boat glides along a canal, and a fisherman is seen returning slowly towards his cabin, with his string of fish upon his shoulder. In the horizon may be seen the spire of a steeple rising amidst a cluster of trees ; but not a hill, no steep path, — every where the same green humid plain ; every where water dividing the estates, coming up to the foot of the houses, or flowing from a marshy soil into the canal. You pursue your route through this rich country, full of people. You expect, perhaps, to be stunned by the noise of a trading and industrious people ; but you find a profound silence. Affairs are not conducted with noise, as in other countries. The workman proceeds with measured steps to his labor ; the merchant gravely to the exchange. They leisurely sit in the public houses, without singing, and without crying out. The Dutch, to whom economy is one of the essential virtues of this world, is economical of his gestures, of his words, as well as of his money. Every thing here is foreseen, measured, and subjected to a regular impulse. Every thing moves, as if by the wheel of a machine in good order. There is silence even in the activity and movement. The boats,

loaded with merchandise, follow gently the sinuosities of the canal ; the boatmen, seated upon the stern, suffer themselves to be thus borne towards the vast entrepôts of Rotterdam and Amsterdam, smoking their pipes. The children returning from school, with the Bible under their arms, have already a grave and doctoral air, which must give much satisfaction to their parents ; and even the animals, the horse with large and full breast, the cow with heavy udder, place their heads nonchalantly upon a branch of a willow, and seem to reflect."

M. Marmier proceeds to describe the appearance of the towns. You find there no curious persons loitering in the streets ; no people running backward and forward and hustling one another upon the sidewalks ; no windows opening upon the arrival of the diligence. Most of the houses are protected by a chain running along the front, at three feet distance, to keep off people who are passing. The doors varnished and ornamented with a magnificent brass knocker, are hermetically closed, and the windows are curtained on the inside by a piece of white cloth covering its whole dimensions. You would have judged the residences deserted, or occupied by persons plunged in the fabled sleep of the fairy tales. Only at times, a light hand raises the mysterious roll of cloth, a head in white shows itself through the window, throwing a furtive glance at the little mirror, called *a spy*, placed without the window, to reflect what passes in the street ; the curtain then falls again, and the curious resident disappears. To be sure this is not recreative ; and when it is considered that Holland, in the north and in the south presents nearly the same aspect, that every where is met the same plain, the same brick towns, intersected by the same canals, it may be conceived why travellers drawn to the country by the mere curiosity of a tourist, should have to make their visit at some important point, and soon pass on, to seek beyond the Rhine more picturesque scenes, and more animated life. But let a stranger come, who does not desire to be taken by the external aspect of the country, who shall attempt to penetrate the domestic habits, the commercial genius of the Dutch, to break that envelope, sometimes a little dry and a little rough, which conceals so many excellent qualities, and he will love Holland, and will delight to render the justice which is so rarely awarded to it. We proceed to copy in full the author's description of some of the more striking features of the country, which he appears to have observed with attention.

"Nothing can be more admirable, considered as a work of industry and patience, than the mere soil of Holland, such as it has become under the hands of man. When the old Germanic tribes, wandering along the Meuse and the Rhine, came to establish themselves in that

country, they found nothing there, but land so movable and moist, that they did not know, says Tacitus, whether to call it land or water. Every head of a family then went from distance to distance, looking for an undulation in the land, a hillock of turf, on which to build his frail cottage, holding himself ready to fly with his wife and children as soon as the river began to overflow. Subjected thus to all the accidents of the earth and air, a day came when these men resolved to endeavor to prevent and oppose them. They drained the marshes by digging canals, they opened an outlet for the stagnant water, and began to cultivate the soil. But from time to time the river, when swelled, rose out of its bed, the sea in anger invaded their domains, and destroyed the fruit of their labors. It was necessary to raise a palisade against the river, and one still more strong against the ocean. 'Nature,' says a Dutch poet, 'has done nothing for us ; she has refused us her gifts, and every thing which is seen in our country is the work of labor, of zeal, of industry.' *

"Thus, when he had once put his hand to the work, a contest was constantly kept up between man and nature, between the population of the plains of Holland, and the rivers and the ocean which overflow them. This whole country, placed below the level of the ocean, is like a great city besieged by an opposing army. The ramparts are built, the sentinels are at their posts ; at the least appearance of danger, the tocsin sounds, the cry of alarm resounds through the towns and villages, every body runs to the place where danger threatens, with shovels and spades, with faggots and rags. They follow with anxiety the movements of the sea, which roars, foams, and strikes with redoubled force against the dyke. If this feeble rampart is in danger of cracking, they caulk it like a ship, with straw, linen, or clods of earth. If these means are insufficient, they draw behind the place of danger a semi-circle, in the same manner as they operate in a fort when the enemy is about to open a breach, and construct a new dyke, so that when the water has broken through the first it is here arrested.

'But, notwithstanding the activity of the Hollanders and the works they have erected, how many times has their implacable enemy, the water of the ocean and the rivers, passed the barriers which have been placed before it, and swallowed up in its fury, thousands of habitations ! The annals of this country are full of disasters like those which have just desolated the unfortunate provinces at the south of France. As early as the sixth century, there are traditions of an inundation in Friesland. There were others in 792, 806, 839, 1164, 1170, 1210, 1221, 1230, 1237. After the last, the island of Vlieland arose, at the north of Holland. Three successive inundations, in 1248, 1249, 1250, produced an epidemic sickness, which caused the death of great numbers. In the 13th century, the Zuyderzee (south sea), did not exist, or was nothing more than a very narrow lake. In 1287, an inundation, which swallowed up eighty thousand persons, gave it the extent and depth

* Helmers, *De Natie Hollandsche*.

which it has at the present day. Near the ancient city of Dordrecht is a lake, containing a great many small islands; it was formerly a rich and flourishing meadow. In 1421, during the night of the 18th of November, the waves of the sea dashed upon this shore, and swallowed up seventy-two villages, and drowned a hundred thousand men. The inundations continued until the 15th and 16th centuries; there was one in 1570 which reached the highest points of land, and after which there were numbered more than a hundred thousand victims. From that period, the skill the Hollanders had acquired in the construction of dykes, the laws which were made to provide for their being kept in order, rendered inundations less frequent. There were, however, several in the eighteenth century, and in the winter of 1825 Holland was in the greatest danger. Even the high and strong dyke of Amsterdam was invaded, little by little, by the waves. The first of February was a day of anguish, of which the inhabitants of that city still speak with a sentiment of terror. The water rose, rose on every side, and every body was there, trembling and uncertain, not knowing where to take refuge, where to fly. If the waves had continued to advance one quarter of an hour longer, not a single street would have escaped the deluge; but at the last moment of the crisis, the waters gradually abated, and the city was saved.

“The construction and maintenance of the dykes costs Holland every year enormous sums. The most skilful engineers are employed in constructing them; an especial administration orders and regulates their labors. A part of these expenses is included in the state budget, the rest is charged upon the provinces. Every proprietor upon the shore pays, besides the general contribution, a special tax for the dykes, in proportion to the extent of his lands, and their neighborhood to the water. Large dykes of faggots or mud extend all the length of the rivers and streams. Some serve as a road; for instance, the causeway of Blois. Other dykes, more or less elevated, are built on the borders of the sea. At the Heider, there is a high wall built in a sloping manner, and sustained at its base by enormous blocks of stone, like the mole of Cherbourg. At Harlingen, the work of the dyke is still more curious. It is a palisade of square posts, pressed one against the other, fastened together by transverse posts, and protected on the sea-side by a mass of great stones. Behind this wooden wall, which rises about twelve feet above the ground, is a second, formed like the first of thick posts, not so high as the first; then a row of stones two feet wide, and finally a third palisade of wood, rising three or four feet above the ground. This dyke extends along the whole coast of Friesland. Imagine, if it is possible, what it must have cost to collect all these pieces of wood, to build these stone dykes of the Helder, in a country where there is neither wood nor stone, and where all these materials must be brought from Norway. On the other shores of the North Sea, there are certain places where the downs extend, making the best possible dykes; but the Hollanders are obliged to defend themselves against these natural barriers, by which they are protected. The wind under-

mines the sides of them, and takes away their summits, spreading clouds of sand over the fields and pastures. To prevent this danger, hedges of shrubbery are planted at suitable distances from each other, which cross in the sand and keep it firm, and a murderous war is maintained against the rabbits, which by establishing their warrens in these places, destroy the plantations. But the efforts of the Hollanders go still farther. In some parts of the country, the downs are from two to three leagues wide. In these cases, they are not content with stopping the movable sand, they labor to clear up these arid mountains, which seem to repel every species of cultivation; and this labor, so difficult and apparently so ungrateful, is very productive. In the first place, thick beds of manure are thrown into the sand, where potatoes are next planted. The harvest is generally sufficiently abundant to pay for the expense of clearing. When the soil has been thus brought under cultivation, enriched, and strengthened, small oaks are planted, which at the end of eight years are cut into bushes; they are then allowed to put out again, and every ten years they make a crop of bushes, which bring two francs the toise. In time, these barren heights are thus covered with magnificent forests, or converted into pastures. It is not a century since a part of the environs of Harlem was covered with a bed of sand; it is now one of the most smiling and fruitful meadows in Holland. It is not thirty years since Westdunn, the dwelling of the noble and illustrious family of Van Lennep, was bounded by wild land; at the present time the zeal and industry of its proprietors have carried its boundaries farther back. The old sand banks are covered with shrubbery, crossed by magnificent walks, dotted by gardens and elegant houses. Every year the plough traces new furrows, every year the hand of man conquers a new territory.

“If from the sea-shore we descend into the interior of the country, here are other labors still more difficult and persevering. There man, shut in behind his dykes, like the inhabitant of a warlike city behind its ramparts, is constantly occupied with embellishing his domain, or making it fruitful. He digs out his soil, he dries it, he fashions it like an unfinished material, which has been put into his hands by God to receive a new form. He cuts canals, he lays out great roads, he builds sluices. Every where, in fine, he goes, he comes, he acts; he is like the industrious ant, who each day drags a new burden, and amasses in his granary the grains of corn and the blades of grass.

“On every side, in traversing this country, traces of the most obstinate labor and the most enlightened industry are perceptible. On every side imposing edifices arise upon a moving soil, which it is necessary to strengthen; boats plough the canals, wind-mills are moving on their high towers, some to grind corn, others to saw boards, others to pump the water from a marshy plain and throw it into a reservoir. The air, the water, is tributary to this ingenious and indefatigable people; they have conquered the elements, and make them pay the budget. Two hundred years ago, the Hollanders executed an enterprise, which would seem impossible without the help of the machinery now in use.

They drained entirely the Beemster, and brought under cultivation a territory of several leagues in extent, which had until then been swallowed up by the waters. They are now laboring to drain the Lake of Harlem. This lake is six leagues long, three wide, and nearly forty feet in depth. It will cost twenty millions to perform this operation; but instead of this sheet of water, which is constantly encroaching on its borders, and threatens soon to extend to Amsterdam, it is calculated that they will have eighteen hundred hectares of good land, which can be sold for 800 francs the hectare, while the 60,000 francs now used annually to keep the dykes in repair will be saved. In the Isle of Texel, there is a space of land continually invaded by the waves of the sea. A company purchased it, surrounded it with dykes, and are about to sell it again at a considerable advance. Seven years ago there were only twenty-five inhabitants there. The construction of these dykes has brought there more than six hundred.

"The railroad which passes from Amsterdam to Harlem is a work of astonishing boldness. It passes between the lake and the deep waters of the Y, over a muddy soil, which is undermined with water on every side. It was necessary to lay down three millions of faggots, to cover them with beds of earth, then again to lay down faggots, then sand and stone. In short, it was necessary to create, in some measure, all the space that the road was to pass over, for in the place over which the railway now stretches, there was formerly only a marsh.

"But all these works are nothing compared to those which have been accomplished at Amsterdam. Imagine a city of two hundred thousand souls, with large streets, magnificent quays, and a crowd of great and beautiful edifices, all built on piles. In building the palace, more than twenty thousand posts were driven into the ground to a depth of from thirty to forty feet. This fact may give some idea of the rest. At one time this city, so rich, so proud of its bank, and its power, was threatened with destruction; and from what cause, can it be imagined? From a little worm, brought from India in the merchant ships, and which threatened to gnaw the wooden piles which serve for a foundation to the houses. It seemed as if Providence had chosen expressly the most obscure instrument to humble one of the queens of commerce in her pride. An idea may be formed of the ravages produced by this terrible insect. I have seen blocks of wood a foot in circumference, which resembled sponges, so eaten were they in every direction. A dreadful cry arose in the city when it was discovered what a fearful pastime the little worm of the Indies had chosen, and how it increased, and how it was about to pierce every post and pillar. The air, the water, the climate of Amsterdam, finally put an end to this terrible race. The good citizens recovered from their terror, and the bankers counted their capitals in security.

"Some years after, the commercial capital of Holland perceived that it was exposed to another peril almost as much to be dreaded as the first. The river Y conveyed into its port continually masses of sand. The Zuyderzee, which connects Amsterdam with the sea on the north,

became more and more difficult to cross. Its sand banks seemed to increase every year. In certain places they could not be passed except with the help of enormous and expensive machines called camels. After having for a long time deliberated on the means of remedying a state of things which became more and more alarming, they set to work; and when the Hollanders go to work, be sure they will finish their undertaking. At first, they protected the basins from the accumulation of the sand by a great dyke, which at the same time defends the city from the inundations of the Y. They then dug a canal, which reaches to the North Sea. This canal, which extends over a space of about twenty-five leagues, is thirty-six feet wide and twenty-two feet deep. There is no other so large in Europe; not one in the whole world, which has such strong locks, and which is dug so deep. In certain places, at Buiksloot, for example, the surface of the water which it contains is eighteen feet below the level of the sea. Now the merchant ships, and even ships of war, which go into the North Sea or come from there, no longer pass by the Zuyderzee. Fifteen or eighteen horses draw them the length of the canal. The ship pays one franc sixty centimes a horse per league; then the toll at the locks; and it is calculated that the passage of a ship from the North Sea into the Amsterdam basin, amounts to from one thousand to twelve hundred francs. But the passage can be made with a good or bad wind, and in eighteen hours, while formerly a vessel was forced to wait for a favorable wind, and might be detained two or three weeks on the Zuyderzee. It may be said after this, that the Hollanders are not a poetic people. I confess they do not dream like the Germans, they do not sing like the Italians, they do not bring out every year some charming poem like the English; but their perseverance in conquering all obstacles, this strength of will which gains the mastery over nature, may it not be considered a true and sublime poetry?

"I should advise those who visit Holland for the first time to make a circuit, and enter it by the Rhine. Not that the Rhine has here an aspect as smiling as on the shores of Bingen, or as picturesque as at the foot of the Drachenfels. Alas! it must be confessed this river, so often sung by poets and sketched by artists, this noble and majestic child of the mountains of Switzerland, which bathes so many romantic ruins, and seems to bear on its waters the spirit of the old legends, falls from the height of its craggy rocks, its shores loaded with vines, into a monotonous plain, then flows silently and goes to die sadly in the sands of Katwik. But in reaching Holland by this route one enters immediately into the domain of its history. First, there is Nimiguen, which no Frenchman can see without recalling the conquests of Louis XIV. and the glorious treaty of 1679; then the chateau of Loevestein, whence Grotius made his escape, hidden in a chest of books; then Gorcum, the first city taken from the Spaniards; Dordrecht, celebrated by its synod; and suddenly we arrive before the magnificent road of Rotterdam.

The most part of the cities of Holland seem built on the same model, of which Amsterdam and Rotterdam are the most striking types. But

each of them has some remarkable peculiarity or some historical recollection, which it is curious to study. Delft contains the tombs of the old stadtholders, and those of several other celebrated men. The Hague was for more than two hundred years the principal theatre of the politics of Holland. It was formerly the residence of the stadtholders, it is to-day that of the royal family, the high officers of state, the diplomatic corps, and the favorite residence of most of the strangers who visit Holland. It is of all the cities of the country the one which has yielded most to French influence. It has a French theatre, French saloons, French journals, and in entering the shops or passing in the public streets, nothing is heard spoken but French. Its streets are large and elegant, the environs are delightful. The wood (de Boosch) is one of the most elegant promenades which is to be found any where. It is a long line of country houses, each more inviting and coquettish than the other. Large inclosures of grass surrounded by majestic trees, parks filled with deer, rows of lime trees where the people crowd during the summer. A quarter of a league from this lovely spot are the dry and solitary sand hills, the downs which protect the cottages of the fishermen of Scheveningen, and the sea ploughed with boats, — the great melancholy and dark North Sea.

“Leyden is, as is well known, one of the classic cities of philosophy and learning. Here the glorious recollections of history are allied to those of science. Here lived Grotius, Descartes, Scaliger, Boerhaave, and it was here, during the siege of 1574, the inflexible burgomaster, Van der Werf, shut up in his house by a crowd of irritated citizens, who demanded bread of him, advanced in front of them, and said: ‘I have no bread to give you; but take my body, and divide it among you.’ These energetic words reanimated the courage of the people; they defended themselves with a new vigor, and the Spaniards were compelled to raise the siege. The University is no longer as splendid as in the time when men loved to inquire there about the Greeks and Romans, and the number of pupils is no longer as considerable. The spirit of the school, however, has not changed. The professors maintain about them the old traditions with a zeal and sincerity truly exemplary. I am not afraid to affirm that no where else are the muses of Athens and Rome more piously honored than at Leyden, and that no where else do the students speak Latin with greater fervor. I have seen a young literary licentiate, who made a thesis on an ancient Dutch poem, and who was to sustain it in Latin. Every moment, the poor candidate for the doctor’s degree was stopped in his argument by some old Netherlandish expression, which he could only render imperfectly, and by making long periphrases, into the language of the Romans. It was melancholy to see him striving under the law which had been imposed on him, and translating confusedly into another idiom what was very clear and neat in its own. No matter, however; he went on, on, according to the academic ordinances, the Latin being the means by which all capacities are appreciated.

The tulips of Harlem are no longer quoted, like bonds on the

Exchange at Amsterdam. The time is gone by, when an amateur would give, for one of those adored flowers, two wagon loads of wheat, four of barley, four fat cattle, twelve sheep, two measures of wine, four tuns of beer, two tons of butter, a thousand pounds of cheese, a suit of men's clothes complete, and a cup of silver. Alas ! all the glories of this world are of short duration ; even the glory of flowers, those charming daughters of the dews of heaven and of the kisses of day. The superb bulb, which an enthusiastic gardener named the *Admiral Enkhuyzen*, has descended from the palace of princes to the modest drawing-room of the citizen. The *Liefkenshoek* no longer tempts any but vulgar ambitions, and one may have at the present day, shall I say it ? for fifty florins, the *Semper Augustus*, the price of which rose at one time to thirteen thousand florins. Notwithstanding this frightful depreciation of flowers, the inhabitants of Harlem have not renounced a culture which still brings them a very pretty profit. In going from the side of the pavilion, the ancient summer residence of King Louis, you pass between a double range of houses, whose little doors carefully closed, and windows guarded by blinds, have a mysterious and retired air. That is the domain of Flora. It is there that the skilful gardener gives his lessons to nature, developes the graces of the carnation, embellishes the dahlia, and brings the tulip to perfection. Harlem has another curiosity, of which the citizens are justly proud. It is an organ of eight thousand pipes, the largest organ in the world. If you ever go into this city, do not forget that on a certain day was born in this place a man to whom was given the name of *Laurent*, and who made a surname of his title of sacristan, *Koster* ; that this man invented, in the year of our Lord 1423, the art of printing in movable characters. Take care not to turn away your head when you meet the heavy monument which has been erected in honor of him, in the square of the Cathedral ; nor forget, in the park, the picture which represents him at the moment when he had just made the discovery ; and the medal struck in his honor. Take care, also, if you wish to pass in the eyes of the inhabitants of Harlem as a traveller somewhat learned, not to speak too much of Guttemburgh.

"It is but a short distance from Harlem to Saardam, where every tourist feels himself obliged to go, to see the pretended cabin of Peter the Great. The fact is, that Peter the Great never passed more than three days in this town, and that fatigued with the curiosity of which he was the object, he retired to Amsterdam, where he could more easily preserve his incognito.

"From Saardam a boat carries the traveller to the midst of the gloomy cities and rich pastures of North Holland ; then we must pass the Zuyderzee, and we find ourselves in the most curious province of the kingdom, Friesland. There, there is a distinct language, a native and original poetry, ancient traditions, and manners which have a primitive character. These people relate that they came from India. It is known that their ancestors formerly occupied vast domains, and that although deprived of their power, they have nevertheless preserved their spirit of

independence, and their pride. The men are generally large and strong. The women are mostly of a slender form, have light hair, and an abundance of it, and blue and limpid eyes. They are renowned throughout all Holland for their beauty. They wear a short mantle, which elegantly displays their figure; a light bonnet covers the top of the head and falls upon the neck, and two large plates of gold clasp their temples. The richer of them add a diadem of pearls and diamonds. There are simple peasants, who, on Sundays, wear thus to church a setting off of eighteen hundred to two thousand francs. The poorest of them are tenacious of wearing this dress. It was related to me, that servants for several years save their wages for the object of purchasing at first a bandeau of silver, then to exchange it for one of gold. To see all this beautiful race of Friesland, these men with their manly figure, and their robust forms, these women, with their gait at once noble and graceful, and the diadem upon their foreheads, it may be comprehended that there is in them a profound sentiment of national pride, and one is prepared to read with interest the legend which describes their origin."

We cannot afford room for this piece of history, nor for a translation at length of the residue of the article from which the foregoing description is taken. But we give some of the more striking particulars. The capital of Friesland is Leeuwarden, a regular and well-built town of eighteen thousand souls. Its prison has obtained some celebrity for the successful results derived from the classification of the prisoners, and for the economy with which it is managed; but the two hundred prisoners are confined in cells too narrow to afford sufficient air for free respiration. This is the most considerable town of North Holland. It has a university, and having a good port, is a place of some commerce, particularly with Germany.

The neighboring province of Drontheim is the most barren and dismal of all the provinces of Holland. Assen, its capital, is a mere village, possessing for houses only a sort of cabins, not distinguished by any traces of Dutch neatness. Yet in this province, in 1816, General Van der Bosch established the Poor Colonies, which have yielded the most satisfactory results. Any poor man, able to labor, may enter these colonies. The society intrusts to him the cultivation of three acres of land, a cow, and pig, and some sheep. There is given to him also every day a pound of bread, and every week a bushel of potatoes, and money to the amount of ten cents. This last, however, is not in common money, but in a sort of tickets, which are received at the shops of the colony. The object of this form of currency is, that it may not be expended elsewhere, or for improper uses. The limited amount, one would think, might protect the expenditure against gross abuses. There is, however, doubtless, wisdom in the restriction. The colonist is bound to repay by degrees,

either in labor, or by a part of his crop, or the produce of his animals, the advances made to him by the society. He is required to pay to the administration of the colony, besides the interest of the capital on the purchase of his little property, ten per cent. of what he gains. If he succeed in thus liberating himself from the engagements which he has contracted, his situation is completely changed. He makes a lease with the society, and treats with it no longer as a colonist, but as a farmer. The women, who do not labor in the fields, spin wool. The children go to school, and in the intervals of leisure also spin. The colonists occupy small brick houses, built on each side of the street, and almost all surrounded by fruit trees. They are grouped in families. A hundred families form a sub-direction, which is divided into sections, and demi-sections. There is in each sub-direction a physician, an apothecary, and one person at least of each particular trade. All the colonists work under the superintendence of their chiefs of sections. If they fall into habits of idleness, they are sent to another establishment, where they are subjected to a treatment of greater rigor. There are now in the four colonies founded by the Society of Benevolence, near nine thousand persons. "What an admirable institution," exclaims Mr. Marmier, "is that which drags so many families from misery, from beggary, to give them a refuge, an existence, — which employs in useful labors so many idle hands, and raises in habits of useful industry, a crowd of poor children!" From this asylum of the unfortunate, you pass directly into a most rich, luxuriant, and thickly peopled country. From Arnheim and Utrecht, and thence to Amsterdam, the road is bordered by most richly cultivated fields, beautiful gardens, and elegant and sumptuous country seats. There are even in the splendid province of Guelderland some hills, and on every hill a splendid villa.

The towns of Holland are at short distances from one another, and the means of communication are multiplied. Diligences pass many times a day, crowded like our omnibusses, besides which boats drawn by horses are passing in every direction. The boat voyage is slow and monotonous, but it is cheap, free from jolting, and is agreeable to the Dutch people. The diligence travels more rapidly; the horses are good, the roads even and hard, the stoppages at the relays are brief, and travellers are treated by the conductors with all sorts of delicate attentions. In this respect, the stage-coaches of Holland are unique.

The interior of the country houses has been modified according to the modern taste, and has acquired a greater simplicity. They retain, however, a luxury of a certain kind not seen elsewhere; the rich carpets, the laquered ware and vases of China, with the fine

cups of porcelain. The country house is the pride of the Dutch merchant. He places it by the side of the most frequented road, and does not surround it by any barrier to conceal it from the observation of travellers. Thither his family retires in summer, and there he reposes from the labors of the week, on Sundays. They do not in Holland feel the necessity of being always in the midst of society, of constantly making or receiving visits, and of being announced in drawing-rooms two or three times in an evening. Except at the Hague, where French habits prevail, the houses in general are only open to relatives, to intimate friends, and to people on business. Two or three times in a winter, the rich proprietor and the banker gives a grand ball or a dinner. They then open the grand apartments; all the magnificence amassed for ages is displayed; they are prodigal to their guests of the productions of the East, and of wines of every sort. The next day the covering is replaced upon the silk and damask furniture, the porcelain and the crystals are returned to the cabinet, the grand drawing-room is shut up, the family descends again to their little apartments, and return to their repose. Through the day the women are occupied in the care of the family, in the evening they remain with their children, and the men go to the club, to recreate themselves from the heat of the day. The arts, science, industry, opinion, are represented by the clubs. At Amsterdam, for example, there is one where they amass books, pictures, sculptures, and where they give concerts; another where they receive the political and foreign journals; a third, where there is a menagerie, and a cabinet of natural history; a fourth, which is formed to have three or four balls and four suppers in a winter; and a fifth, where there are few journals, but many tables for play. Some of the clubs are very ancient, and very rich. Most of them have a house of their own, and a considerable furniture. Each member has the right to carry to the ball his wife or daughter, and to introduce a stranger for two or three weeks. Inhabitants of the town who are not members of the club, are absolutely interdicted from admission. Members are admitted by election, and by a plurality of votes. Each member may ballot against a candidate, without assigning a reason, and without being known, by simply depositing in the urn a ten-florin piece. The citizens, who are not able or inclined to pay the assessment to the clubs, which is rather high, amuse themselves by frequenting, with their wives and children, public establishments, where are various entertainments of music, and of other kinds, at cheap rates.

The peasants of Holland, as well as the inhabitants of the towns, are remarkable for their love of order, their devotion to labor, and their habits of economy. They are remarkable also for their strict morality, which is preserved by a sentiment of religion, not to be found,

perhaps, elsewhere to prevail more universally. All know how to read; and they read in preference the Bible, psalms, and books of piety. They also often discuss theological subjects. Often on Sunday, on their return from church, they may be seen seated before a table, with a pipe in their hand, analyzing the sermon of the preacher, weighing his words, and testing his arguments. Works of theology are numerous, and are very much read. The country is full of religious sects; but the adherents of each live side by side in perfect concord. No one is afraid to avow his creed, for all creeds are allowed by the government, and respected by individuals.

Mr. Marmier closes his view of the character of this people by the following remarks: "Of what moment, then, is the singularity of certain habits, and the peculiarity, perhaps too apparent, of certain forms, in a country where are to be found so many of the essential virtues; the religious sentiment, love of one's family, probity in the relations of life, order, and perseverance? The Dutch have never made, that I know of, the pretension to pass for a brilliant and chivalrous people. They have been powerful without boasting, and when we come to recount their first maritime expeditions, we perceive that they have exhibited sometimes, with the most perfect simplicity in the world, a heroic courage. Let us not, then, persist in seeking in them for qualities which are not in their nature; and let us learn to appreciate those which have belonged to them from time immemorial. They are a people practical and reasonable, two qualities which have especially a value in the times in which we live. They are, if you please, a great commercial house, intelligent, laborious, loyal, who master Fortune by their labor, and hold her in subjection by their perseverance; and who may inscribe upon the top of their monuments this device of the past: '*Concordia res parvæ crescunt.*'"

ARTICLE XVII.

BUENOS AYRES. ITS RECENT CONTEST WITH FRANCE, AND ITS PRESENT POLITICAL SITUATION.

NEXT to the provinces which once formed the state of Colombia, the Argentine provinces, situated in the vicinity of the great river La Plata, take at present the most conspicuous part in the great drama of confusion and bloodshed which South America has been performing for the last twenty years. The war now in progress between Buenos

Ayres and Monte Video, the insurrection of Lavalle, and his somewhat protracted conflict with the forces of Rosas, and the recent blockade of Buenos Ayres by a squadron of the French nation, all tend to draw the attention of the student of the history of our time to the condition of these states. These events apparently have no connexion together, but like most political operations of one time and country, they have in part a common origin. We propose to give a slight sketch of their commencement and progress, together with the recent history and present condition of these republics; and it will be convenient to treat of them all in the same connexion. We derive our facts respecting the French blockade, and its agency on the domestic politics of the South American states, from an able article by an officer in the French squadron, in the '*Revue des Deux Mondes*,' published in Paris.

The states now known as the Argentine Republics, together with Paraguay and the Banda Oriental, formed, under the Spanish rule, the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, including all the part of South America east of the Andes and south of Brazil, which was in the possession of the Europeans. As early as 1810, the colonists had begun to show their disaffection to the Spanish yoke, and in that year Cisneros, the viceroy, after having taken violent measures to support his authority, was obliged to assemble a junta and allow an independent government to be formed, acting in the name of Ferdinand VII. of Spain. This concession, however, did not put an end to the disturbances in the provinces. In different times and manners they secured their independence; and in 1826 they confederated under the title of the provinces of La Plata, with a form of government similar to our own. The first duty of the new confederation was to continue the efforts which Buenos Ayres had begun, to defeat the exertions which the Portuguese from Brazil were making to seize upon the Banda Oriental, or district east of the Uruguay and La Plata.* This district had become independent of Spain under Artigas, and the Portuguese had at once attempted to take advantage of its weak state to add it to their own territory. In 1828, however, the contest was ended by a treaty, by which the Banda Oriental was erected into an entirely independent state, which took the title of Monte Video, from the city of that name.

The federal constitution of the provinces of La Plata, was neither fitted to the wants of the people, nor favorably received by them. The settlement of the country was originally carried on in a manner very different from that of most of the American states, and the present aspect of its civilization is as entirely different. The Spaniards

* This district is also known as the republic of Uruguay.

were first established in the province of Tucuman, the most northerly of the Argentine states. They were in search of El-dorado, and were constantly referred to the south, by the natives, who were anxious to get rid of them. The aborigines were a savage, warlike race, not easily overcome, and consequently the first adventurers were obliged to fortify their stations and live together in considerable bodies, rather than to scatter themselves over the whole country. The natives who were captured in their foraging excursions were made slaves, compelled to labor for their new masters, and thus these outposts became considerable towns, each of which served ultimately as the nucleus of a new state. The country being pastoral, fitted to support large herds of horses and cattle, the settlers remained in the towns, while their cattle grazed in the surrounding country. The effect of these circumstances is visible in the appearance of the country at present. The province of Buenos Ayres contains but one town, the city of Buenos Ayres, all the rest being a vast domain, divided into *estancias*, or districts separated for the raising of cattle. Santa Fé is the only town in the province of that name; Bajada the only town in Entre Rios; similar remarks might be made of the other provinces. The extent of the different states varies with the nature of their soil and population. The *grazing* states occupy an immense territory, those few states which are rather agricultural have less, while Catamarca, merely a mining district, has less than any. The character of the population varies in the same way. In the *grazing* provinces, which comprise, as we have said, the greater number, the herdsman, who is constantly in motion and action, feels his own power; the sovereignty falls into the hands of such men, and becomes radically rude. The agricultural states are more moderate, and in the mining provinces of the north a feudal aristocracy still exists in full vigor.

By these various circumstances,—the difference of size, of popular feeling, of employment, and interest among the various states, and more than all, perhaps, the entire separation of their respective masses of population from each other, the task of uniting the various states into a confederation became difficult, if not quite impossible. Unfortunately, the men on whom it devolved, who from the circumstances of the time held the power in their hands, and framed the constitution of 1826, of which we have spoken, do not appear to have represented the predominant sentiment of any of the republics. The province of Buenos Ayres had throughout taken a decided lead in the struggles for independence. It was in Buenos Ayres that those struggles began. She had furnished arms, money, soldiers, and generals, to Chili and Peru in their wars, and had thrown herself into the breach to resist the encroachments of Brazil upon the Banda Oriental. From her, naturally enough, the first movements with respect to a confed-

eration proceeded. The higher class of her inhabitants possessed immense riches, both in lands and other property. Many of them had been educated in Europe, and introduced into South America all the refinements of a polished civilization. These men hoped that their country might attain a similar refinement to that which they had seen abroad, and thought they might introduce it at once, by the operation of the form of government. In their plan of confederation, the most refined and best educated circles and men were the only class who were designed to have any share in the government. The whole nation was represented by a small aristocracy. This party took the name of *Unitario*, expressing thus its prominent object, and this object was attained in the constitution of 1825, by which the thirteen provinces were united, the captain-general of the province of Buenos Ayres being charged with the supreme executive power of all the provinces. Rivadavia was the first and only captain-general or president under this constitution. He and his plan of government were destined to a speedy overthrow.

The plan failed, because it had not the support of the majority of the active part of the population. Buenos Ayres itself, a province whose wealth consisted in its immense herds of cattle, took, as we have said, its political bias from the republican and independent views of the cattle-drivers and herdsmen, who knew their own power, and did not dislike to assert it. Such men as these were entirely unrepresented in the new government. It was not long, however, before they made their influence seen and felt. Juan Manuel de Rosas, one of the *gauchos*, or cattle-drivers, of the interior of Buenos Ayres, who had, from his personal and physical faculties, acquired the admiration of his fellows, while his services in the revolutionary combats had given him some rank in the army, began at this time, at the age of thirty-two years, to take a share in political affairs. He saw the two distinctly marked classes which made up the body of his countrymen, the rich townsmen, who had all the legal power in the state and yet were weak and few, and the inhabitants of the country, who, although possessing all the physical force, were entirely subservient to their wealthy citizen neighbors. He felt, that if these men had only a leader, their party might become the predominant one in the state, and such a leader he made himself. He made his residence the centre, and himself the leader, of all the operations of the peasantry against the Patagonian savages, who infested the country, and he thus at the same time secured the confidence of his fellow-countrymen, and the terror and subsequently the coöperation of the savage tribes.

When the Unitarios proposed the union of the provinces on the basis which we have described, Rosas had prepared to controvert

them. His force was not sufficient for this purpose, and he at once secured the coöperation of others, who had like himself gained power by securing the confidence of the country population. Among them were Bustos, the governor of Cordova ; Ibarra, commandant of Santiago del Estero, and Quiroga of Rioja. Lopez of Santa Fé subsequently joined this league ; and with this addition to their strength, they took bold ground, which they had not been able to maintain before. Although they had not been able to prevent the establishment of the constitution and government of 1825, they now felt strong enough to protest loudly against it, confident as they were of the coöperation of the entire force of several provinces. They set up Colonel Manuel Dorrego as Governor of Buenos Ayres in place of Rivadavia, and supported his pretensions by their united forces. The Unitarios, unused and unfitted for battle, retired at once from the contest, and acknowledged virtually that Buenos Ayres was not yet ripe for their projects of government. Rivadavia quitted his post in July 1827, and the national congress was dissolved.

Dorrego was chosen governor of Buenos Ayres. The new arrangement, however, was by no means satisfactory to the established army of the republic, a force which in South American governments always ought to be consulted in political changes. During these events, it had been engaged in the war with Brazil. Lavalle, an officer of distinction, whose name has been recently made conspicuous in these internal dissensions, put himself at the head of the discontented soldiery, returned to Buenos Ayres, drove out Dorrego, took his place as governor of the province, beat him and Rosas in battle, took him prisoner and shot him without the formality of a trial. Rosas, Lopez, and Quiroga resumed their league. Lavalle succumbed before this superior force, and resigned his post, to which Rosas was soon after elected.

No sooner had he attained this station, than he began to strengthen his power by going to war against those states, whose power or government he dreaded, and established an active and efficient police at home, and thus raised himself to the highest authority among the Argentine republics. It will be understood, that there existed no confederation, as we understand that term, between them ; that of 1825 having been dissolved in 1827. More lately, in 1829, a species of league was established between the states, by which the captain-general or governor of Buenos Ayres is charged with their foreign relations ; but, in most points, Rosas's authority over the other provinces was and is that of the stronger, Buenos Ayres taking precedence among them. To some of them, or their governors, he was bound by close offensive and defensive treaties. One of his first proceedings at home was to pass a law of "surveillance and purification" against the Unitarios.

It declared that all persons whose political opinions were contrary to the principles of the government were conspirators against the public order, and deserving capital punishment. The power thus attained and strengthened he has kept without interruption to the present time, the only remarkable feature to be noted here in the course of years which have since intervened, is that in 1835, when he was re-elected governor and declined the appointment. Five successive times the honor was offered to him, but as often did he refuse. The representatives of the people, who nominally made the choice, were puzzled and in despair, when it was suggested that the dictatorship for five years should be offered to him. The offer was made and immediately accepted. It has since, at its expiration, been renewed. So that now Rosas is in name, as well as in fact, absolute governor of the province of Buenos Ayres, and by consequence he has the supremacy over the remaining Argentine states.

It is hard for us to ascertain precisely with what degree of moderation he has exercised this absolute authority. Probably he is not so black as he has been painted; few men are. He has been accused of the treacherous murder of all those former friends who happened to be in his way and his power. Probably he is not guilty in every instance. He seems however to have much of the roughness and severity of character which might be expected from a popular partisan, educated in the wilds of the Pampas. He has great energy, however, for good as well as for evil, and is evidently a man of strong native talent. Vested with absolute power it would have been strange if he had not often shown himself a tyrant.

The origin of the French blockade was a personal quarrel between Rosas and the French consul, in which, to say the least, the latter appears to have been, decidedly, the most in the wrong. The Bourbon government of France, true to its absolute principles and allies, had frowned on the new South American states, through the whole period of the Restoration. Louis Philippe's government, however, acting on more liberal principles, showed a desire to encourage as much as possible the French commerce with these states, and sent out to them authorized agents. The French cabinet decided to send to Buenos Ayres a consul-general and chargé d'affaires, and appointed M. de la Foret to this office. The government of Buenos Ayres refused to receive him, on account of some alleged mal-conduct of his, when on a mission to Chili. The French government pocketed the insult, and replaced him by the Marquis de Vins de Peyssac, who had filled the office of consul in New York and Havana, and given general satisfaction. In order to prevent all difficulty, he was advised to announce himself at first merely as consul-general, and not to present his papers as Chargé, until he had sounded

the intentions of the Buenos Ayres government, and ascertained whether his *exequatur* would be immediately granted to him. He, however, at once assumed his double title; but Rosas chose to show his power, by refusing, for more than a year, to authorize him to exercise his diplomatic functions. He then condescended to admit him as *Chargé*, with the express condition that this admission was not to be considered as a precedent for the future. The author, from whom we take our statements of this difficulty, to whom we have already alluded, appears to be somewhat prejudiced against the French agents, although himself one of their countrymen.

Soon after accepting his admission on these humiliating terms, for which he was censured by his government, M. de Vins de Peyssac died. A young man named Roger, an attaché of the mission, assumed his duties *ad interim*. Unused to his situation, without confidence in himself or his authority, and yet somewhat vain of the distinction which had accidentally fallen upon him, he did not dare to take a bold stand in protesting against the arbitrary acts of the government. Rosas was well pleased to have affairs take this position; he did his best to flatter and cajole the young vice-consul, and was for a time successful in leading him at his will. Soon, however, he laid aside such pretences, and the vice-consul, seeing the coolness of manner which took the place of the former cordiality, was somewhat offended at it. We can readily understand, that a person in his circumstances should have the weakness which, as we have said, evinced itself in his bearing, and yet should wish to show that he was himself something, and not to be considered as merely an accident, whom nobody should take notice of but himself alone. His inconsiderate enthusiasm gave way to hatred, and a personal quarrel ensued between him and the Dictator, in which, as may be supposed, the latter suffered less than his antagonist. His wounded self-love took refuge behind his country's interests. There is no difficulty in finding occasions for national disputes in these distant countries, where law is little more than a word in its effects upon the conduct of the people. Strangers have always some claim in abeyance, when among a half-organized people, which can be the cause of murmurs or menaces, at the will of those who have to conduct them.

M. Roger took several such grievances under his especial patronage. Two Frenchmen had been compelled to serve in the militia in precise conformity to a fundamental law of the republic. A Swiss printer named Bacle, who was considered as under French protection, had been imprisoned and sentenced to be executed for high treason, having published a libel on Rosas; and a French café keeper had been imprisoned six months for theft. Bacle had been pardoned and liberated; but these instances were sufficient to excite the complaints of

the agent of unjust and improper behavior on the part of the Argentine government. This was at the close of 1837. The French ministry was weak at home, and desirous of "getting up" a little glory abroad, was putting in motion the Mexican expedition, which resulted in the storming of St. Juan d'Ulloa; and a quarrel with Buenos Ayres did not come amiss into its foreign policy. Indeed, we need hardly censure its conduct in the consideration of its means of information. The vice-consul, irritated by his own treatment, represented Rosas as a tyrant, who was partially insane, a partisan chief who had neither reputation, influence, nor resources; who would lose his power at once at the slightest menace of France. His conduct towards the French government had certainly been disrespectful and reprehensible. The cabinet consequently directed the vice-consul to make a statement of the injuries, of which France complained, to insist on redress, and to address the Dictator of the Argentine Republic in bold and energetic terms. Rosas was somewhat surprised at this sudden change in the tone of the French officer; but it only served to make him rather more overbearing. He was surprised to see an agent whom he had hardly recognized as consul, assuming the privileges of a diplomatist, and undertaking to discuss questions which only came under the province of a chargé d'affaires. He refused to acknowledge the vice-consul as the representative of his country, and would not deign to make any reply to his demands, treating the whole affair as a farce unworthy of his consideration. The French residents were irritated at this behavior, and their consul still more so. They roused each other to such a pitch of enthusiasm and rage, that the consul, having sent in, in January, 1838, his ultimatum, threatening strong measures in case of a refusal, and Rosas, having paid no regard to it whatever, he took down the French flag from the consulate, and with the insignia of the establishment, retired to the city of Monte Video, situated, as our readers must understand, in the Banda Oriental, on the northeastern side of the bay and river of La Plata.

Meanwhile the French government had ordered Admiral Le Blanc, their naval commander on this station, to proceed to sustain the consul in any measures he found necessary. He arrived at Monte Video in March. The consul had found, during his residence there, numbers of the proscribed and exiled Unitarios, and other politicians of Buenos Ayres, who of course did not decrease his detestation of Rosas. After one more attempt to treat with him, which was fruitless, and a refusal on the part of the French admiral to accede to an offer of Rosas to treat with him, the French agents determined to resort to more active measures, and at once declared the blockade of Buenos Ayres.

If the reader will cast his eye upon a map of these countries, he

will see that the port of Buenos Ayres would be readily blockaded by a squadron cruising off the mouth of La Plata. Such a blockade, however, would also act upon the port of Monte Video opposite, and thus injure a government with which the French had no quarrel. More than this, they did not wish to quarrel with it. The state of its internal relations was such, that the French officers conceived the idea of making them subserve their own interests in opposition to Rosas.

The republic of Monte Video or Uruguay was established, as we have stated, in 1828, by treaty between the Argentine republics and Brazil, independent of each. Its proximity to the Argentine states, however, and the similarity of its inhabitants and their interests, had frequently brought them together in political affairs, and Rosas had at this time, in Monte Video, as in the Argentine states proper, his own governor. This was Oribe, who was entirely devoted to him. He was supported principally by the population of the city of Monte Video; but a strong opposition was made to him by Fructuoso Rivera, a man of great popularity in the country population, who had raised himself to influence by means very similar to those employed by Rosas in Buenos Ayres. He commanded, moreover, the sympathies of the Argentine exiles who had taken refuge in Monte Video. The two parties took names from the colors of their respective standards; the *reds* (colorados) were the party of Rivera, the *whites* (blanquillos) those of Oribe. We ought to mention, however, to prevent misunderstanding, that in Buenos Ayres, on the other side of the river, the partisans of Rosas all wear red.

Rosas was so much attached to the interests and party of Oribe, that he was prepared to send a naval force to his assistance, in the character of "protector." On the other hand, the French, whose head-quarters were now established in the city of Monte Video, naturally favored the colorados, or party of Rivera. They trusted that they should be able to make this dissension in Monte Video favorable to their interests, and consequently, wishing to avoid all cause of quarrel with the colorados, they resolved not to blockade the mouth of La Plata, which would have involved Monte Video in the same evil with Buenos Ayres, but to extend their vessels along the river coast of this latter province, leaving the navigation to Monte Video entirely free; a course of operations, which, though evidently the most just, was as evidently much less efficacious than the other, for the channel of La Plata is very little known, and numerous creeks and lagoons give every opportunity which contrabandists could desire for their operations. It must be remembered, that at its mouth La Plata is one hundred and fifty miles wide, and that this estuary extends inland nearly two hundred and fifty.

A blockade, however, is but an ineffectual sort of warfare against a population like that of Buenos Ayres, even when most rigidly carried on. The inhabitants have all the lazy dignity and also the quick sense of honor of their Spanish progenitors. They are very little dependent on European commodities, their soil is rich and productive of almost every thing which they require, and foreign menaces excite in them only a sensation of pride. The French agents proceeded to attack them in another manner.

Rivera, in Buenos Ayres, had brought his forces into the field, for it must be understood, that when we spoke of an opposition we did not imply merely a speech-making opposition; the two parties had been at war for two years. His success was considerable, and he succeeded in adding to his forces a large body of Argentine exiles, headed by Lavalle, who acted with the understanding, that so soon as Rivera should obtain the presidency of Monte Video, they should act together against their common enemy, Rosas. Oribe was soon driven into the city, which, with Paysandou, was all of the province which still acknowledged him. The French kept a watch on an Argentine flotilla, which would have assisted him, and on the meeting of the chambers, who were to make a new election of president, his term of office having expired, only three votes were given for him, and Rivera was chosen. Oribe left Monte Video at once, and took refuge in Buenos Ayres, where he was cordially received by Rosas.

This appeared to the French agents a decided advantage to their interests. In order to improve it to its full extent, they decided to assist Lavalle in his proposed movement against Rosas. He had already organized a large body of refugees. Rivera had promised his assistance, and he represented that the tyranny of Rosas was so odious, that the moment he entered the Argentine provinces, the people would flock to his standard from every side. Before completing an alliance with him, however, the French agent sent once more his ultimatum to Rosas. The capture of St. Juan d'Ulloa, in Mexico, resulting on the refusal of the French ultimatum there, had now been heard of, and it was hoped that this result of the interposition of French arms would excite the alarm of the Dictator and his partisans. "The French government," said the consul, "has thought proper to intrust to its acting consul, and to *no other person*, the duty of recapitulating the grievances of France, of demanding reparation, and of communicating the nature of the satisfaction which it required, as indispensable to the renewal of peace between France and the Argentine republic." Now as Rosas had all along declared that he would have nothing to do with this same acting consul, while he had expressed a willingness to treat with other persons, this proposition could not have been expected to receive any very serious attention.

It was, moreover, to say the least, somewhat misjudged, as it was well known that M. Buchet Martigny had been lately appointed consul-general of Buenos Ayres, and would soon arrive and immediately supersede the acting-consul Roger. The French Admiral, however, as had been threatened, at once commenced active offensive operations, by taking possession of the island of Martin Garcia, at the head of the estuary of La Plata, on which was a fort garrisoned by Argentine soldiers.

When Martigny, the new consul, arrived, he proved to be little less prejudiced against Rosas than Roger had been. The Dictator had offended him in the preceding year, when he had passed through Buenos Ayres, and he was not sorry, probably, to find matters in the state in which they were. He made no attempt to visit Buenos Ayres with the view of establishing a reconciliation, but pressed offensive measures more vigorously than his predecessors, establishing his head-quarters at Monte Video. This conduct, of course, was irritating in the extreme to Rosas and his partisans. They had always professed that the quarrel was a personal one with Roger; that they only asked for a French agent whose rank and character they could respect; and that the arrival of Martigny would put an end to the whole trouble; and now that he had arrived, it appeared that he would not condescend to present himself in the city. This slight aroused to the highest the popular feeling against the French.

Martigny at once made his arrangements for the campaign. His naval force was small, and he readily fostered and joined in a coalition for the overthrow of Rosas, by raising his subject provinces against him. Lavalle with the Argentine exiles was eager for such an undertaking. Rivera, the new president of Monte Video, promised his alliance, and the state of Corrientes, one of the most easterly of the Argentine states, agreed to join in the undertaking, the first operation of which was to be to overthrow the existing governor of Entre Rios,* Echague, who was a creature of Rosas, for the purpose of securing the coöperation of this province. A treaty to this effect was regularly drawn up and agreed to; Rivera proved backward or treacherous, however, and the forces of Corrientes were defeated in a bloody battle, in January, 1840, by those of Rosas. This was for a time a decided check to the operations of the coalition. Meanwhile

* The names of the provinces of which we speak will serve to keep in the reader's mind their relative geographical positions. La Plata (the *Silver*) river flows south and east; the states upon and near it are the *Argentine* or *Silver* republics; the Uruguay flows parallel to it in a southern direction, emptying into it near its mouth. The states of *Corrientes* (rapids) and *Entre Rios* (between rivers) lie between them; and the *Banda Oriental*, or Monte Video, is east of the river Uruguay. The name of the upper part of La Plata varies. It is sometimes called *Paraná* and sometimes *Paraguay*.

the French blockade had been materially interrupted, as they had sent several of their vessels up the river to join in the operations there, and had left consequently but a comparatively small force to watch the harbor of Buenos Ayres. Thus far the results of their exertions had been but trifling in comparison with the display and noise with which they were accompanied. Rosas appeared to view the whole proceeding with the utmost nonchalance.

After an attempt at reconciliation by Commodore Nicholson, of our navy, had been made and had failed, the next noteworthy proceeding was a second alliance somewhat similar to that just mentioned, in which Lavalle with his Argentines was to play a more distinguished part. Lavalle, Rivera with a force of Monte Videans, the Corrientines and the French squadron were the contracting parties against Rosas, each to act in different places and manners. If the reader has been able to follow us through our explanation, thus far, and to distinguish the particular situation of the different parties, he will see the motive which influenced each. The result was more successful for a time than the other had been. Rivera beat Echague, governor of Entre Rios; Echague in turn beat Lavalle, who had been appointed general of the Corrientines, and who was compelled to retreat with his troops on board the French squadron, in the Upper La Plata, or Paraná. Here fortune seemed to give him an opportunity of effecting a landing on the opposite shore, and he embraced it, and with his troops raised the standard of revolt in those provinces, much nearer Rosas and his authority than those in which he had before acted. This was in the spring of 1840. Here it would seem as if the contest was fairly begun; all before this has the aspect of fruitless preparation. In point of fact, however, at this period the most material part of the contest was nearly over; and though Lavalle and Rivera had been led into war by their hopes of reaping the benefit of the French operations, at this time what had seemed likely to prove a serious war, changed its aspect entirely, the French settled their dispute, and it assumed the aspect of merely a petty squabble and rebellion.

Admiral Le Blanc had been replaced by Admiral Dupotet, who as much from necessity as choice continued in the policy which had been begun, only enforcing the blockade with much more strictness than his predecessors had done. He saw the false position in which the French agent had placed himself by refusal to treat with Rosas, and undertook some negotiation himself; the immediate result was, of course, a quarrel with Martigny, the consul, which ended in both these officers being superseded by Admiral Baudin, who had been so successful in settling the Mexican difficulty.

Lavalle met with but trifling success. No strenuous opposition,

however, had been made to him ; he still ranged the pampas, and he sent a message to the French admiral, suggesting that his best method of operating would be to send a suitable force to act under his (Lavalles) directions. To this modest request Baudin did not accede, and in consequence Lavalle left the southern provinces, and retreated towards the north.

We have not attempted, we have no motive to attempt, to give the detail of operations in these quarrels and counter-quarrels. Lavalle has, from that time to this, held ground somewhere in the provinces, frequently defeated by the government troops, but under such circumstances, that a defeat is of very little apparent consequence. The armies in these states are almost all cavalry, each man having two or three horses, and acting quite independently. The result of a charge of one body upon another, is in fact the result of a whole action ; but it is seldom that either party suffers very severely. Lavalle, at our last accounts, was in the northern provinces, the governors of some of which had coöperated with him. The Buenos Ayres forces and those of their allies, are undoubtedly much the strongest and best appointed, and there seems no reason to suppose that the rebellion in this precise phase will last much longer.

Admiral Baudin was, for some reason unknown, replaced by Admiral Thackau, who immediately on his arrival undertook a negotiation with Rosas, which was speedily settled. Rosas had maintained the ground which he had taken from the first, — that he would not treat with Roger. As soon as a plenipotentiary whom he respected was sent out to him, he was ready to negotiate. The treaty was at once settled on easy terms to the French ; it was published on page 44, of the current volume of the Chronicle.

It only remains for us to allude to the dissension between Monte Video and Buenos Ayres, which still continues. Each has a small squadron on La Plata, which occasionally succeed in coming to action with each other. Nothing very material has in any instance been the result ; in every contest each party has claimed the victory. The commanders are both New-Englanders. Admiral Brown commands the Buenos Ayres fleet, and Commodore Coe that of Monte Video.

Rosas's power, in fine, seems to be as much as ever in the ascendant. The attempts at revolution in Buenos Ayres and the provinces near it have entirely failed, and the tyrant, as he certainly is, has undoubtedly taken strong measures to retain his authority. We ought to apologize for taking up so much room on so uninteresting a subject as the contests which different powers have maintained with him. They form a page in the history of the time, however, which is, we

believe, but little studied or understood ; and though it is certainly not an important one, we have not deemed it amiss to attempt to throw some light upon it.

M I S C E L L A N Y .

LORENZO STARK :

OR, A GERMAN MERCHANT OF THE OLD SCHOOL.

[Translated from the German. — Continued from page 415.]

CHAPTER XXII.

SOON after dinner the Doctor appeared, partly to inquire after the health of the old gentleman, but more especially and principally, to discover the state of his feelings. He asked, almost in one breath, "How are you? and how were you pleased with the widow?"

To the first, the answer was, "Well;" to the second, "Not ill."

"You found her a very fine woman, did you not?"

"Fine, yes, well, yes, if you please, figure and face are quite tolerable. One cannot help being surprised how such a woman could be led on by a weak, foolish husband, to give up for love of him all her principles."

The Doctor, who had expected a more favorable answer, was a little confused. Meantime he did not think it best to cross the stream in a straight line. "She has a very gentle temper. Do you not think so?"

"She seems to have; but women have many faces, my son."

"But they are, in fact, very different——"

"That is as we take them. They are to-day one thing, the next another——"

"On my soul you abuse the whole sex——"

"No, no, my son; I prize the fair sex not only for their virtues, but for their weaknesses; but, mark me well, these must go together. The women of the world, and women of fashion, who have all weaknesses and no virtues, and even these in the highest degree, these, my dear son, as you must have before now remarked, are my aversion."

"And to these, do you think Madam Lilius belongs?"

"Whether she does now I cannot say."

"I am the family physician."

"Then you can answer for her health."

"Yes; and also for her temper, her manners, her character. A physician has many secret confidential moments with his patients."

"So, and do you tell me this to my face?"

"Why not?"

"To me, the father of your wife? If I were to tell it to her ——"

"With all my heart, as soon as you please."

The gay, pleasant tone of the Doctor, quieted the old gentleman, and he took his hand; "Dear, good Doctor," said he, "you and my daughter make a brave, a noble couple. God keep you so; I have no greater pleasure than in you." He desired to turn the conversation to his son, about whose fever he began to feel some anxiety; but the Doctor would not leave the widow so hastily.

"Take it for granted for once," said he, "that the woman is actually what she seems, gentle, amiable, affable, pleasing; may not the senseless extravagance in Liliás's household be explained without attributing it to her? Can you not imagine, that such a woman might have sacrificed her own inclinations to the wishes of her husband, who was vain, and passionately fond of pomp and pleasure, and that without the slightest inclination of her own, she might have been carried by him from one party to another, from one ball to another ——"

"But the establishment began not till after the marriage."

"Naturally; for then the house becomes a household; the wife makes it one."

"And the whole outfit, the splendor, the shining equipage, all appears to me to show a feminine taste, more than that of a man."

"But this certainly came from the husband."

"Hum ——; there are, to be sure, many womanish men, and men worse than women."

"So I think; and then, dearest father, what could the daughter of a poor country clergyman — and such was Madam Liliás — what could such a girl, who brought neither wealth nor dowry into the house; what great pretensions could she make ——"

"Monstrous! Do not you understand that? The wares of vain women have no fixed price; but in their own eyes they are of great value. If a man, for a delicate figure, or a pretty mask, or even for a silly babble, if for one or all of these, a baron will exchange his estates, a count his domains, they have not lost thereby, they have made a good bargain, for these might have gained a principality, or an imperial sequester ——"

"But we are not speaking of a mistress, but a wife?"

"I am all attention ——"

"Whose happiness or unhappiness, honor or shame, is so closely connected with the honor or shame of her husband."

"Will that be thought of?"

"In this case it was thought of. That a young, inexperienced girl, just from the country, altogether unacquainted with the world, should

plunge headlong into the stream of pleasure, and think only of the present enjoyment, and not of the future bitter consequences, a man so well acquainted with the world as you are, will as easily forgive as understand this."

"But the thing went on, still continued, without end ——"

"It was the fault of the husband alone, my dear father. His wife's health was suffering—I was almost daily in the house—I discovered she was very uneasy, that she longed to return to the simple, quiet life, to which she had been accustomed in her youth. At last she ventured to speak to her husband; but it had no effect, except to excite his anger. She loved her husband, she was weak, she was modest and timid on account of the poverty from which she had come to him. He, on the contrary, was proud, domineering, and yielded little to the prayers and tears of his wife. The establishment was kept up in a ruinous manner, and it must have been a very great property, which could have sustained the extravagance of the husband as long as it did."

"It was, it was, indeed," said the old man, "great wealth, which he inherited from his father ——"

"Meantime, the wife had many warnings. She feared sad consequences; but while her husband remained cheerful, she shut up, with her usual timidity, all her cares in her own heart. At last, when embarrassments actually arose, to which only the very advantageous sale of the garden put an end for the time, she succeeded, by the most earnest, the most tender, the most pathetic representations, in producing some little retrenchments, and obtaining some promises for the future, which were soon forgotten. If he had not died at the right time, she would have probably seen the entire bankruptcy of the house, and deep, bitter poverty."

"Not probably, you may say certainly, infallibly; but that the fault was so entirely her husband's and not her's, I tell you, my son, I cannot be persuaded. I have heard very different accounts from others."

"From whom, I pray you, dear father? From ——"

"From the wolf in the fable," he might have said; but as the name was just upon his lips, ——

CHAPTER XXIII.

MR. SPECHT entered the room, and was immediately recognized by the Doctor as the man, from whom this information had probably been received. It might have been the soft face and fawning humility of Mr. Specht, or some recollection of the manner of his brother-in-law toward that gentleman, which aroused the suspicion.

Mr. Specht, with an important air, placed a large bag of gold upon the table, very happy, as it appeared, to be able to bring to his worthy godfather the amount of his debt in crowns and pennies. He had, by a little speculation in goods, which were then in demand, gained a

considerable sum; he therefore made haste by this payment to purify the golden fountain, which by a longer neglect might have become stopped up.

"Why, in the name of wonder!" said the old man, while Mr. Specht emptied the bag; "there is indeed a heap of money. There is wealth like that of the man in the Gospel. Where did you get all that?"

"He, he, dearest, best Mr. Stark, how you do love a joke! Wealth, indeed; this lacks much of great wealth; but one does his best; and if one grain is added to another, as my godfather once said, and then a new grain added to that——"

"Yes, I see, there will be a heap in the end." Meantime Mr. Specht counted away gaily, and looked about now and then for the son, whom he would now have seen as willingly as he had formerly done unwillingly, since he could appear before him in such glory. The sum was found to be right, the gold was put into the bag again, and the torn paper given up.

"Now," said the Doctor, "since I see you have finished your business, Mr. Specht, how do you do? how do you find yourself?"

Specht, with a low bow, in which his head described a sort of spiral line, returned a thousand thanks for the kind inquiry, and assured the Doctor he was well.

"And at home, your dear wife, and the children?"

"All well, all well, most respected Doctor——"

"Now that is pleasant; I am glad to hear it; and how do they do in the neighborhood? how is Madam Liliass?"

"He! he! She lives on, very quietly, as it is proper for a widow to live, very quietly."

"It was not formerly so quiet there. They used to be noisy enough."

"Ah, that the good Doctor may well say. Noise by night and by day, not a moment's rest. There was screaming, and running, and coming, and going, and racketing, and when there was a ball or masquerade, there were fiddles, and flutes, and horns, and trumpets enough to take away one's senses. My poor wife suffered greatly at one time from the noise, when she was ill. She did not blame the master so much as the mistress, who had so little consideration as to give such a gala, while her neighbor was so ill. She never could bear the sight of the woman afterwards; it was actually godless."

"Indeed, she might have waited till the short six weeks were over; but will not the household be soon set in motion again?"

"Why, there are different opinions about that," said Mr. Specht, rubbing his eyes a little, and wondering what made his sight so dim.

"How so? The husband has been long enough under the ground. The deep mourning is over."

"It is, to be sure; but"—he drew the thumb of his right hand twice over the fore-finger, and shrugged his shoulders—"when that fails, my dear Doctor,——"

"Yes, that is true, that we all want; but the lady may find a little among the bags of the old father-in-law——"

"A little! He, he! he, he! —"

"But if only something, if that is ever so little, a small, unimportant remainder. Such people, who in youth did not learn accounts, are as it were beset with the evil one. They can have no quiet nor rest till they have spent every thing, even to the last penny. The seal of justice must be placed upon the chests and boxes before they will cease."

"Yes, that may be the case here; I do not contradict you, good Doctor."

The old gentleman, who was aware to what end the Doctor was leading him, had turned his back toward Mr. Specht, and sat perfectly still upon his stool.

"For once in my life," resumed the Doctor, "I wish I could be certain, not which of the two parties alone and exclusively, for that neither of them were good for much seems pretty well established, but who was most to blame for the everlasting feasting and dancing and waste in the house, the man or his wife."

"Oh, the wife, the wife, my dear Doctor."

"Indeed? But you are the next neighbor, you must certainly know —"

"As soon as the wife set foot in the house, every thing went to wreck."

"Yes, so they say; but I lately heard two sensible gentlemen discussing this question, and one of them maintained, that there was little or no proof of this, and that it was incontestibly not the wife, but, what it seems must be now given up, altogether the husband, to whom the bad management must be attributed."

"Indeed, whoever may have said that, most excellent Doctor, with all due consideration for him —"

"Take care," said the old man, from his retreat, "are you not talking too much?"

"How so? how so, my good godfather? I have no bad intentions. The woman is in appearance very well — I might almost say, she is handsome, though for my life I should not dare to say so at home — he, he! he, he! — and then, I suppose, a young husband, who was always so near her —"

"Has grown exactly like her," said the old man, laughing, "so that you cannot tell one from the other; that is probable. I know myself a very estimable man, that in certain moments of leisure amuses himself with the ladies, and even he —"

"Who is it?" said Mr. Specht; "who is it?"

The old gentleman and the Doctor laughed heartily, and Mr. Specht joined with his he, he! he, he! He dried his moistened eyes, and declared he never was so merry as when he was with his dear godfather."

"But," resumed the Doctor, "now seriously, dear Mr. Specht. One cannot imagine that such a reasonable man as you are should take up an opinion without any foundation. Did not the late Mr. Lilius, in some confidential evening chat, complain to you that he was tired of

the extravagant course of his wife, which he did not know how to restrain?"

"Complain, my dear Doctor, to me? in a confidential evening chat?"

"Just before the door, I mean, over a pipe, as neighbors gossip together?"

"Why, my dear Doctor, what are you thinking of? Such a great man on exchange, such an extensive merchant, would he have condescended to such a little beginner as I am? No. It is only our Mr. Stark, who is kind to every child, and takes notice of the meanest citizen. He alone has the credit——"

"Much obliged," said the old gentleman.

"For the others, it seems quite too much to look at such as we are; the most polite and humble good morning is answered with a nod."

Mr. Specht made an attempt to give a very proud and contemptuous look; but the expression of his face was one that no other than Mr. Specht could have given.

"Well, then, certainly some of the people in the warehouse, or others in the house, who knew about the matter, must have chattered about it a little——"

"The warehouse people, or the house servants? there you are still farther from the right. They are, if possible, more puffed up than their master, or at least more insupportable; with their high salaries, what are they? No longer servants, as my wife says. Our one, says she, if she eats but a small piece, can cut her own bread; but such a rabble,—not to be spoken to very nearly,"—continued he, as if alarmed.

"All true, all fair, my dear Mr. Specht; but I have not yet my answer. You know the disposition of the wife, and her taste for extravagance; but you have not learned it from her husband, nor from the trusty people of the house. From whom, then, may I ask?"

"By auricular confession," said the old man, rather bitterly; for he saw that Specht had gone beyond himself. "Madam Liliás is probably a Catholic, and Mr. Specht is her father confessor."

"In heaven's name," cried Specht, drawing back with real Protestant terror, "if my minister should hear that, or my wife,—I a father confessor?"

The laughter of the two gentlemen, which, to be sure, as far as the old man was concerned, sounded a little peculiar, soon brought him to himself. "No, indeed," said he, "my good Doctor; what knowledge I have came from a more allowable, and from a very correct source."

"Indeed; might one then be informed?"

"When I first spoke to Mr. Stark of the wild management in the Liliás family, my godfather immediately exclaimed, that is the wife's doings; this is the new-fashioned method of housekeeping. Let dancing and frolicking once enter a house, and the best establishment will fall to the ground. And when I repeated this at my own table, my wife immediately said, he is right; our godfather is altogether and entirely in the right."

"Just so, — excellent! And upon that you threw the whole blame of the extravagance directly upon the wife's shoulders?"

"In heaven's name, why not? My good godfather I must believe. He is experienced; he who knows the world, knows every thing ——"

"Is the man mad?" asked the old man; while to the great terror of poor Specht, he got up from his chair in great displeasure.

"My dear, my best godfather ——"

"Indeed, this is very pleasant," said the Doctor. "You, my dear father, had the account from Mr. Specht, and Mr. Specht received the account from you."

The Doctor received a very unfriendly, and the godson, who stood as if turned to stone, a very annihilating glance. "He is," murmured the old man between his teeth, "with all his civility and his humility, ——." Here he restrained himself, seized the bag of money, and left the room.

CHAPTER XXIV.

"You see the gratitude of the world," said the Doctor, while Mr. Specht's handkerchief was in full motion in consequence of the perspiration into which his position had thrown him. This is all the thanks you get for your fatiguing walks, and the news you have brought."

"My dear Doctor," said Specht, raising his eyes to heaven, "if I am not as innocent as a new-born babe."

"Oh, that you are, I will bear witness."

"If my godfather did not say all, word for word, as I have repeated them." In solemn assurance, he laid his hand upon his heart.

"No oaths, Mr. Specht. I believe you on account of your innocence. My father-in-law said all; you have made him say, perhaps, even more; but do you know why? Because two not inconsiderable houses had failed, as all the city knew, through the vanity and extravagance of women, who resembled Madam Liliás as much as Sin does Virtue. One was a runaway Englishwoman, the other an operadancer. Fools of husbands had married these women. These circumstances the old gentleman laid to heart; and Madam Liliás was a stranger just arrived here, and entirely unknown to him. What he said to you was only asking a question, which you might have answered not so lightly and so disadvantageously to a worthy woman, for such she might be, and such she is."

"But I did not know it, my good Doctor. I knew as little about her as Mr. Stark did."

"You knew, at least, that you knew nothing; and this, Mr. Specht, was a fact, that as an honest man, you ought to have made known."

"Ah, my dear Doctor, I should have then made him angry."

"Indeed; and perhaps you have now made him angry."

"Such a man, such a gentleman, in all eternity never ——"

"True, Mr. Specht; and now remark in future, — the truth, according to your best information, is not only necessary to your honor, but

to your happiness. Do the best you can with that. The manner a man tells the truth makes the difference ; for the rest, tell it to the king as well as to the beggar."

"Ah, my dear Doctor, if you could only be placed as I am !"

"You are very kind——"

"There one sits and delves, and has wife and children about his neck, and often can hardly tell, from anxiety, whether he is in the body or out ; and then if he comes into a great house, and sees all the big cases, and the monstrous bales filled with goods, and the running and driving of the people, and the wagons, loading and reloading, and a whole dozen of horses standing waiting, — ah, my dear Doctor, it creates a reverence, a respect ; where, in heaven's name, shall one get courage, even only to breathe ?"

The Doctor gave his man a sharp look, and wished to waste no more words upon him. But at his earnest prayer he promised to endeavor to reconcile the old gentleman to him, wrote him the recipe for a powder to be got at the next apothecary's, and wished him good morning.

CHAPTER XXV.

THOUGH Mr. Stark had been led, more by his own prejudices than by his foolish godson, yet the sight of the latter had become disagreeable to him ; and still more disagreeable, because on this occasion he had lost his courage, and thereby confirmed every probability. He felt very well, that he might have finished the affair after his usual manner, with a laughing speech, if he pleased ; but he turned this mistake, if it were one, to his honor. The ground of his uneasiness lay less in his disappointed self-love, than in the uprightness of his heart, which accused him of his past injustice to the widow, and displayed to him the person who had inspired him with it no longer in a ridiculous, but in a hateful light.

The daughter, who, through Madam Liliás and her husband, had been made acquainted with all that had taken place, thought the present disposition of the old gentleman might be used to advantage. She made him a short flying visit, in which she touched with a sure hand all the strings which she knew to be most sensitive in the heart of her father. The excuse for this visit was a compliance with the request of her father, which he had made her when the carriage drove off, that she would bring him news of the widow.

"Excuse me," said she, "dear father, that I have not sooner complied with your request ; but in the morning some business, which could not be put off, made it impossible ; and for that reason I did not stay long with the widow. This afternoon I remained longer, and have just come from her, with a somewhat heavy and troubled heart, I must confess."

"How so ?" said the old man, not without interest ; "is she again unwell ?"

"Not that ; she suffers not so much in body as in spirit. The poor woman is afraid she will be utterly ruined, because a certain Mr. Horn, who is one of her creditors, declares he will either be paid or take the most severe measures against her."

"How ? if she has to do with him —— "

"Sad, indeed —— "

"Then I pity the poor lady. Consideration is not to be hoped for from him. But is Madam Liliias still in difficulty ? her affairs in confusion ? I thought your brother had put every thing in order ? "

"So I supposed ; but he may have set a term which cannot be exactly kept."

"I should be sorry if he had done so."

"Or he may —— If I had more knowledge of business matters, I could guess farther."

"That will do ; several things are possible."

"I know as much as why the widow came to see you this morning."

"Indeed ? "

"This very difficulty with Horn. She could not ask the assistance of my brother, on account of his illness. She did not see him at her house, and it was not proper for her to visit him, an unmarried man, and yet the case was pressing, and the widow — I repeat her words — the widow felt that the noble conduct of my brother, of which she never speaks without great emotion, gave her confidence in the name of Stark. She wished to seek from the father what circumstances prevented her from asking of the son — counsel, help, mediation, support."

"And she was silent, and wherefore ? "

"She spoke, as she told me —— "

"No."

"She certainly spoke ; but —— "

"No," repeated the old man, with an emphasis which betrayed the continuance of his angry feelings.

"I rather think my dear good father did not hear, did not understand her."

"Then she did not speak, but murmur. The hateful custom of speaking low grows every day more and more troublesome. When I was young, people spoke out of their mouths ; by and by, forsooth, folks will expect you to hear their thoughts."

"She is timid, poor woman ; you must excuse her. You yourself made her more afraid."

"I ? do you know what you are talking about ? I never frighten any one who has any thing to ask for ; but on the contrary, I encourage him and listen to him, and if I can do it without too great injury to myself, I help him willingly without ceremony. The miserable unworthy art of giving value to one's favors by shrugs and sour looks I never understood. This my daughter must have known, and might have told the widow."

"Have I not done so ? Do not be angry, my dear father."

"Angry ? now I shall be indeed angry. Why have you come to me to-day ? "

"Ah! I may have done wrong. I believe I have done so. Had I considered the matter as I ought to have done, perhaps I should not have come to you; but I felt so unhappy ——"

"About the widow?"

"Yes; and then — the smallest circumstances sometimes affect the heart ——"

"How?"

"I cast my eye, for a moment, into the mirror, before I entered the door of Madam Liliass's parlor. There sate the poor woman on the corner of the sofa, her arm supported on the cushion, and a handkerchief in her hand to dry her tears; by her side, each on its little cricket, sat her two innocent little ones, who are usually playing round so gaily, but now seemed to have no heart for their sports, they sate looking down so quietly, as if they shared in their mother's grief, and looked up, when they heard a sigh escape her, with such an expression in their large, pure blue eyes, so much sorrow, tenderness, earnestness, I thought on my own little ones, I thought on you. If you had witnessed it, dear father ——." She took out her handkerchief, and covered her eyes.

"Are they, then, such fine children?" asked the old man with a tone, which had become much more gentle.

"Ah, so well managed and polite. To be sure, she has but these two to look after, and I have a great many; but yet I acknowledge her my mistress in management. She governs hers with a glance, a look, and that not in unkindness, but in love. But here I am standing talking, and forget that my little ones want their supper. I must go, dear father. Good bye; forgive me if I have troubled you with my low spirits to-day. It shall not happen again." She kissed his hand and vanished.

The heart of the old gentleman was in itself so good, and the soil of it was so well opened by this skilful little preparation, that it was not possible but the seeds of mercy which had been strown in it should bear excellent fruit. Mr. Stark could not eat in the evening, he could not sleep in the night. The little group, as his daughter had painted it, were always floating before him, and it constantly seemed to him as if he must remove the handkerchief from the hand of the widow, and take the dear little orphans in his arms.

Beside this picture, there were thoughts of another kind which disturbed him. "The widow felt confidence in the name of Stark!" That seemed to him like an obligation, a bill of exchange, which faith in virtue had drawn upon his honor, and which he could not possibly dishonor. "She wished to seek from the father what circumstances prevented her from asking of the son." How could he bear the thought that the father should in generosity be behind a son, whom he had so often blamed for his narrow-heartedness. Then the name of the woman, which reminded of his ancient most confidential friend, the good, honest Liliass; her great timidity, so great as to cause her fainting, at being obliged to ask for help from a stranger, he considered a proof of

a noble mind; her tears, which might have been drawn forth by the part he had himself taken in the conversation; the great injustice which, misled by his prejudices, he had done her, by the mockeries which she so little deserved, and for which his own heart now called on him for satisfaction, though the voice reached not the heart of the innocent; the difficulties in which the house of Lilius was involved, the goodness which had lain concealed in the character of his son, which it gave him so much pleasure to bring to light, — all these, and similar considerations, kept the old gentleman awake till midnight, and allowed him then not a sound sleep, but a series of unquiet dozes.

THE BANK OF FRANCE.

THE *Moniteur Parisien* publishes the quarterly account furnished by the Bank of France, in pursuance of the law of the 30th of June, 1840. It consists of three parts: 1. A debtor and creditor account furnished to the 30th of June, 1841. 2. An account of the average amount of cash on hand and paper outstanding during the quarter ending the 25th of September, 1841. 3. An account of business transacted during the quarter ending the 25th of September, 1841.

Debtor and Creditor Account furnished to the 30th of June, 1841.

DEBTOR.		frances.	cts.
Bank notes in circulation payable to bearer,	.	219,416,000	
Bank notes payable to order,	.	1,241,158	5
Cash account with the Treasury,	.	118,625,938	34
Sundry cash accounts,	.	40,575,617	72
Receipts payable at sight,	.	2,812,500	
Capital of the Bank,	.	67,900,000	
Reserve,	.	10,000,000	
“ in real property,	.	4,000,000	
Dividends payable,	.	357,460	
Draughts of branch banks,	.	253,069	60
Sundry accounts,	.	4,018,915	36
		469,200,659	07
CREDITOR.		frances.	cts.
Cash on hand,	.	195,362,393	16
Bills due yesterday	.	48,348	85
Commercial bills discounted,	.	157,422,946	42
Advances made upon the deposit of ingots and specie,	.	6,065,500	
Ditto on government securities,	.	10,697,036	65
Accounts current debtor,	.	23,066,943	13
Capital of branch banks,	.	12,000,000	
Reserve,	.	10,000,000	
Lodged in Government securities,	.	50,178,405	15

BIRTHS, DEATHS, AND MARRIAGES IN GREAT BRITAIN. 535

House and furniture of the bank,	4,000,000
Sundry credits,	359,085 71
	<hr/>
	469,200,659 07

Average state of the Bank during the quarter ending 25th of September, 1841:—

DEBTOR.

Average amount of bank notes in circulation payable to bearer,	220,036,000
Ditto payable to order,	1,121,000
Treasury account current,	125,257,500
Sundry " "	42,661,000
Receipts payable at sight,	2,855,500

CREDITOR.

Average cash on hand,	209,066,000
" commercial bills discounted,	137,317,000
" advanced on deposits of ingots and specie,	8,040,500
" upon Government securities,	7,877,000
" accounts of branch banks,	22,107,000

Amount of business transacted in the course of the quarter ending the 25th of September, 1841.

	francs.
Commercial bills discounted,	243,924,300
Advances made upon deposits of ingots and specie,	17,774,200
" " " Government security,	8,605,600
" " " Treasury bonds,	1,306,500
Received from accounts current,	1,048,143,100
Paid to accounts current,	1,049,725,700
Received from the Treasury,	86,040,500
Paid to the Treasury,	92,657,000
Received in cash from branch banks,	78,898,500
Received in bank notes from branch banks,	493,078,500
Paid in cash for account of branch banks,	105,471,700
Paid in bank notes to branch banks,	492,510,000

Certified by the Governor of the Bank,

C. D'ARGOUT.

BIRTHS, DEATHS, AND MARRIAGES IN GREAT BRITAIN.

THE "The Third Report of the Registrar-General of Births, Deaths, and Marriages," has just been published, of which the following is an abstract:—

The appendices to the report are, we understand, in progress, and will shortly be delivered.

The following table will show the numbers registered in the year ending June 30, 1840, compared with those of the preceding years:—

	1839 - '40.	1838 - '39.	1837 - '38.
Births,	501,589	480,540	399,712
Deaths,	350,101	331,007	335,956
Marriages,	124,329	111,083	111,481

Thus showing an increase in the number of births registered in the year ending June 30, 1840, over those in 1838-'39, of 21,049; over those in 1837-'38, of 101,877; in the number of deaths registered in the year ending June 30, 1840, over those in 1838-'39, of 19,094; over those in 1837-'38, of 14,145; in the number of marriages registered in the year ending June 30, 1840, over those in 1838-'39, of 3,246; over those in 1837-'38, of 12,848.

The increase in the number of registered births is said to be the result of the successful operation of the new law. The increase in the number of registered births has not been confined to a few localities, but has been generally diffused.

During the last three years the proportion of male and female children has been nearly the same. There appears, from the report, to have been an apparent increase in the number of deaths compared with the two preceding years. The first year's registration did not comprise the deaths of the whole year, which, including those registered subsequently, amounted to 338,660. The real increase, therefore, over the registered deaths which occurred in the year 1837-'38, is 11,441. In considering this subject, we should recollect that the population of England and Wales has increased from 1821 to 1831, at the rate of 16 per cent.; and if it be assumed, (as is probable,) that this rate of increase has continued to the present time, the population in the years 1838-'39, and 1839-'40, will probably have increased to the amount of from 220,000 to 240,000 annually.

The proportion of male and female deaths in each of the three years has been nearly the same.

	Males.	Females.
Year ending June 30th, 1838,	170,965	164,991
“ “ “ “ 1839,	169,112	161,895
“ “ “ “ 1840,	177,929	172,172

More than half of the excess over the deaths of 1838, - '39, and more than three-fourths of the excess over those of 1837-'38, consist of deaths of children over five years of age. This increase in the rate of mortality, we are happy to say, has not been general throughout the kingdom, but has been confined to a few unhealthy localities. From a tabular statement attached to the report, it appears that there has been a progressive decrease of mortality from 1837-'38, in the metropolis and in Devonshire; and a progressive increase from 1837-'38, in the counties of Derby, Leicester, Northampton, Nottingham, Rutland, and the northern parts of Lincolnshire; the counties of Chester, Salop, Stafford, except the mining part of the two latter; Lancaster, south of Morecombe-bay, except Liverpool and Manchester; the West Riding of Yorkshire, except the northern parts thereof and Leeds; the city, ainsty, and East Riding of York, Monmouthshire, Herefordshire, and Wales. The greatest increase of mortality has been in the following counties:—Lancashire, Nottinghamshire, West Riding of Yorkshire, Leicestershire, Cheshire, Gloucestershire, Northumberland, Durham, Derbyshire, and North Wales, the combined increase of which alone

amounts to 15,231 out of the total increase of 19,097. It will be noticed that this increase of mortality has occurred among the manufacturing portion of the population. A great number of deaths in these districts is to be traced to the prevalence of epidemic diseases, particularly typhus and scarlet fever; and, besides these, other circumstances, to which those living in the manufacturing parts of England are exposed, which will always be operating prejudicially to health, and cause an increase in the rate of mortality.

The report shows a great variation in the mortality in different districts, especially in childhood and old age. The deaths of children under one year of age, constituting a fourth portion of the whole mortality, appear to have been comparatively most numerous in the mining districts of Staffordshire and Shropshire, the south of Lincolnshire, Huntingdonshire, and Cambridgeshire; the manufacturing parts of Lancashire and Yorkshire; in Manchester, Liverpool, and Leeds, &c. The proportion of deaths at advanced ages has been greatest in Devonshire, Dorsetshire, Wiltshire, Cornwall, in the counties north of Yorkshire, and in Norfolk and Suffolk. It has been least in Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, and the mining districts of Staffordshire and Shropshire.

In the number of marriages there has been an increase to the amount of 12,848, as compared with those registered in 1837, - '38, and an increase of 3,246 over those of the year 1838 - '9. The number married under the age of 21 was as follows: Men, 6,101, women, 17,909, being in proportion to the whole number married 4.90 per cent., and 14.40 per cent. respectively. This proportion is in a slight degree higher than in the preceding year, when the numbers were 5,628 men and 16,414 women, and the proportions 4.64 and 13.55.

It appears from the report, that in 13 English counties, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, and in Wales, more than 40 per cent. of the men married could not write their names; and that in 19 English counties, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, and in Wales, the same fact existed with respect to more than half the women. It appears from the abstract of marriages contained in the report, that in the whole of England and Wales, out of 124,329 couples, there were 41,812 men, and 62,523 women, who it is presumed either could not write, or wrote very imperfectly.

With reference to the ages of those married, it appears that in the year 1838 - '39, the average age of marriages was, for men, about 27 years; for women, 25 years and a few months. It now appears, from an analysis of the recorded ages in 10,019 marriages, which occurred in June, 30, 1840, that the average age for men is 27.4 years; for women, 25.5 years.

The places registered during 1840 for the solemnization of marriages unconnected with the Church of England, amount to 188. The number registered the preceding year was 246.

POPULATION OF GREAT BRITAIN.

COMPARATIVE statement of the population of each county in Great Britain, in 1811, 1821, 1831, and 1841, showing the increase or decrease in each county :

ENGLAND.

COUNTIES.	1811.	Increase, per cent.	1821.	Inc. per ct.	1831.	Inc. or Dec. per ct., 1841.		1841.
						Inc.	Dec.	
Bedford	70,213	19	83,716	14	95,483	13	107,937
Berks	118,277	11	131,977	10	145,389	10.2	160,226
Buckingham	117,650	14	134,068	9	146,529	6.4	155,989
Cambridge	101,109	20	121,909	18	143,955	14.2	164,509
Chester	227,031	19	270,098	24	334,391	18.4	395,300
Cornwall	216,667	19	257,447	17	300,938	13.3	341,269
Cumberland	133,744	17	156,124	10	169,681	4.8	177,912
Derby	185,487	15	213,333	11	237,170	14.7	272,202
Devon	383,303	15	439,040	13	494,478	7.8	533,731
Dorset	124,693	16	144,499	10	159,252	9.7	174,743
Durham	177,625	17	207,673	22	253,910	27.2	324,277
Essex	252,473	15	289,424	10	317,507	8.6	344,995
Gloucester	235,514	18	335,843	15	387,019	11.4	431,307
Hereford	94,073	10	103,243	7	111,211	2.9	114,438
Hertford	111,654	16	129,714	10	143,341	9.6	157,237
Huntingdon	42,208	15	48,771	9	53,192	10.3	58,699
Kent	373,095	14	426,016	12	479,155	14.4	548,161
Lancaster	828,309	27	1,052,859	27	1,336,854	24.7	1,667,064
Leicester	150,419	16	174,571	13	197,003	9.5	215,855
Lincoln	237,891	19	283,058	12	317,465	11.1	362,717
Middlesex	953,276	20	1,144,531	19	1,358,330	16	1,576,616
Monmouth	62,127	15	71,833	36	98,130	36.9	134,349
Norfolk	291,999	18	344,368	13	390,054	5.7	412,621
Northampton	141,353	15	162,483	10	179,336	10.9	199,061
Northumberland	172,161	15	198,965	12	222,912	12.2	250,268
Nottingham	162,900	15	186,873	20	225,327	10.8	249,773
Oxford	119,191	15	136,971	11	152,156	6.1	161,573
Rutland	16,380	13	18,487	5	19,385	10	21,340
Salop	194,298	6	206,153	8	222,938	7.2	239,014
Somerset	303,180	17	355,314	13	404,200	7.8	436,002
Southampton*	245,080	15.4	283,298	11	314,280	12.9	354,940
Stafford	295,153	17	345,895	19	410,512	24.2	510,206
Suffolk	234,211	15	270,542	9	296,317	6.3	315,129
Surrey	323,851	23	398,658	22	486,334	19.7	582,613
Sussex	190,083	22	233,019	17	272,340	10	299,770
Warwick	228,735	20	274,392	23	336,610	19.4	402,121
Westmoreland	45,922	12	51,359	7	55,041	2.5	56,469
Wilts	193,828	15	222,157	8	240,156	8.2	260,007
Worcester	160,546	15	184,424	15	211,365	10.4	233,484
York	986,174	19	1,173,157	17	1,371,359	16	1,591,584
England	9,538,827	17.4	11,261,437	16	13,091,005	14.5	14,995,508

* Hampshire.

WALES.

Anglesey	37,045	21	45,063	7	48,325	5.3	50,890
Brecon	37,735	16	43,603	10	47,763	11.5	53,295
Cardigan	50,260	15	57,784	10	64,780	5.5	68,380
Cardmarthen	77,217	17	90,239	12	100,740	6.	106,482
Carnarvon	49,336	17	57,958	15	66,448	22.	81,068
Denbigh	64,240	19	76,511	8	83,629	6.7	89,291
Flint	46,518	15	53,784	11	60,012	10.8	66,547
Glamorgan	85,067	19	101,737	24	126,612	37.	173,462
Merioneth	30,924	11	34,382	0	35,315	11.1	39,238
Montgomery	51,931	15	59,899	9	66,482	4.1	69,220
Pembroke	60,615	22	74,009	9	81,425	7.9	88,262
Radnor	20,900	7	22,459	9	24,651	2.1	25,186
Wales	611,788	17	717,438	12	806,182	13.	911,321

SCOTLAND.

Aberdeen	135,075	15	155,387	14	177,657	8.2	192,283
Argyll	85,585	14	97,316	4	100,973	...	3.9	97,140
Ayr	103,954	22	127,299	14	145,055	13.4	164,522
Banff	36,668	19	43,561	12	48,604	3.	50,076
Berwick	30,779	8	33,385	2	34,048	1.1	34,427
Bute	12,033	15	13,797	3	14,151	10.9	15,695
Caithness	23,419	29	30,238	14	34,529	4.8	36,197
Clackmannan	12,010	10	13,263	11	14,729	29.7	19,116
Dumbarton	24,189	13	27,317	22	33,211	33.3	44,295
Dumfries	62,960	13	70,878	4	73,770	...	1.3	72,825
Edinburgh	148,607	20	191,514	15	219,345	2.8	225,623
Elgin (Moray)	28,108	11	31,162	10	34,231	2.2	34,994
Fife	101,272	13	114,556	12	128,839	8.9	140,310
Forfar	107,264	6	113,430	23	139,606	22.	170,380
Haddington	31,164	13	35,127	3	36,145	...	1.	35,781
Inverness	78,336	15	90,157	5	94,797	3.	97,615
Kincardine	27,439	6	29,118	8	31,431	5.1	33,052
Kinross	7,245	7	7,762	17	9,072	...	3.5	8,763
Kirkcudbright	33,684	15	38,903	4	40,590	1.2	41,099
Lanark	191,752	27	244,387	30	316,819	34.8	427,113
Linlithgow	19,451	17	22,685	3	23,291	15.2	26,848
Nairn	8,251	9	9,006	4	9,354	6.	9,923
Orkney & Shetland	46,153	15	53,124	10	58,239	3.	60,007
Peebles	9,935	1	10,046	5	10,5785	10,520
Perth	135,093	3	139,050	3	142,894	...	3.4	138,151
Renfrew	92,596	21	112,175	19	133,443	15.9	154,755
Ross and Cromarty	60,853	13	68,828	9	74,820	4.3	78,058
Roxburgh	37,230	10	40,892	7	43,663	5.4	46,062
Selkirk	5,889	13	6,637	2	6,833	16.9	...	7,989
Stirling	58,174	12	65,376	11	72,621	13.1	82,179
Sutherland	23,629	23,840	7	25,518	...	3.4	24,666
Wigtown	26,891	23	33,240	9	36,258	21.5	44,068
Barracks	4,425
Scotland	1,805,688	16	2,093,456	13	2,365,114	11.1	2,628,957

ISLANDS IN THE BRITISH SEAS.

Jersey	28,600	27.9	36,582	30.	47,556
Guernsey, Alder-	}	20,827	25.4	26,128	9.2	28,538
ney, Sark, Herm,	
and Jethou,	}	40,081	2.2	41,000	17.	47,985
Man
Total	89,508	15.8	103,710	19.6	124,079

*Summary of the Census.*GREAT BRITAIN AND ISLANDS IN THE BRITISH SEAS.
COMPARATIVE POPULATION.*

ENGLAND	9,538,827	17½	11,261,437	16	13,091,005	14.5	14,995,508
WALES	611,788	17	717,438	12	806,182	13.	911,321
Persons ascertain- ed to have been travelling by Railways and Canals during the night of June 6, 1841.	4,896
England and Wales	10,150,615	17	11,978,875	16	13,897,187	14.5	15,911,725
SCOTLAND	1,813,688	16	2,093,456	13	2,365,114	11.1	2,628,957
Islands in the Brit- ish Seas,.....	89,508	15.8	103,710	19.6	124,079
GREAT Britain....	11,964,303	...	14,161,839	15.	16,366,011	14.	18,664,761

* This Return includes only such part of the Army, Navy, and Merchant Seamen, as were at the time of the Census within the Kingdom on shore.

According to the census of 1801, the population of England was 8,331,434, and the increase from 1801 to 1811 was $14\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The population of Wales in 1801, was 541,546; increase the next ten years, 13 per cent. England and Wales, in 1801, 8,872,980; increase the next ten years, 14 per cent. Scotland, in 1801, 1,599,068; increase in the next ten years, 14 per cent. Total population of Great Britain in 1801, 10,472,048; increase in the next ten years, 14 per cent.

THE NOVEMBER METEORS.

THE London Times publishes the following abstract of an interesting communication by Mr. Galloway on the present state of our knowledge relative to shooting-stars, which was read before the Astronomical Society on the 8th of January, 1841, in which the results of the principal observations on record and the deductions to which they have led are brought together and considered, and the several theories which have been proposed with a view to explain the nature of this mysterious class of phenomena are collected and compared. M. Chladni's celebrated work, published in 1794, contains a catalogue of all the observations which had then been recorded upon the phenomena of fire-balls, which meteors, he considered, had not their origin in the terrestrial atmosphere, but were masses moving through the planetary sphere with velocities equal to those of the planets themselves, and which, on entering the earth's atmosphere, became incandescent and luminous ;

thus accounting for the scattered masses of stone and iron which reached the surface of the earth, and were found to present an almost perfect similarity of constitution wherever they were found, differing widely from that of any substance found on the earth. And the close resemblance between fire-balls or aerolites and shooting-stars led M. Chladni to ascribe a similar origin to the latter class of phenomena. No observations, however, had then been made for the purpose of determining the altitudes, velocities, and paths of the shooting-stars; and observations in order to ascertain these points, without a knowledge of which the question of the existence of these meteors within or beyond the atmosphere could not be solved, were undertaken in 1798 by Brandes and Benzenberg, in Germany; by M. Quetelet, in 1824, in Belgium; and by M. Wartmann, in Switzerland, on the 10th of August, 1838, the anniversary of the other great meteoric epoch in the year. The results of the first series of observations are stated by Mr. Galloway to have been as follow:—The computed altitude of the lowest of the meteors observed was about 6 English miles; there were 7 under 45 miles, 9 between 45 and 90 miles, 6 above 90 miles, and one had an altitude of about 140 miles. From one observation the velocity of 25 miles in a second was deduced, from the other a velocity of from 17 to 21 miles, and the most remarkable result, says Mr. Galloway, was, that at least one of the meteors moved upwards, or from the earth. The similarity between fire-balls and shooting-stars in respect to altitude and velocity was thus fully established.

Another series of observations was conducted by Brandes from April to October, 1823, during which period about 1,800 shooting-stars were observed at the different stations of observation, 98 of which had been observed simultaneously at more than one station. The altitudes of 4 of these were computed to be under 15 English miles; of 15 between 15 and 30 miles; of 22 between 30 and 45 miles (the computed limit of the atmosphere); of 35 between 45 and 70 miles; of 13 between 70 and 90 miles; and of 11 above 90 miles; of which latter meteors 2 had an elevation of above 140 miles, 1 of 220, 1 of 280, and 1 whose height was computed to exceed 460 miles. Thirty-six orbits, continues Mr. Galloway, were obtained; in 26 of which the direction of the meteor was downwards, in 1 horizontal, and in the remaining 9 more or less upwards. In 3 cases only the observations afforded data for determining the velocity; and the results were 23, 28, and 37 English miles in a second, the last, as Mr. Galloway remarks, being nearly double the velocity of the earth in its orbit; and the motion of the meteors generally was contrary to the motion of the earth. Then came the observations of M. Quetelet, which may be found in the *Annuaire de Bruxelles* for 1837. He obtained six corresponding observations, from which the velocity of the meteors was deduced, and the results varied from 10 to 25 English miles in a second, giving a mean velocity of 17 miles—little less than that of the earth in its annual course. And the last set of corresponding observations noticed in the paper was that of M. Wartmann, recorded in Quetelet's *Correspondence Mathématique* for July, 1839. They were

made on the 10th of August, by observers at Geneva, and Planchettes, a village 60 miles northward of that city. In the space of 7 1-2 hours, 381 meteors were observed at Geneva, and in that of 5 1-2 hours, 104 were observed at Planchettes. The paths described by the meteors varied from 8 degrees to 70 degrees of angular space; and the average velocity was concluded at 25 degrees per second, the average height at about 550 miles, and the absolute relative velocities of the meteors was computed at 220 miles in a second. The greater number moved in a direction opposite to that of the earth in its orbit, the earth's velocity in which is about 19 miles in a second. So that the absolute velocity of the meteor must have been, observes Mr. Galloway, more than eleven times the orbital velocity of the earth, seven and a half times that of the planet Mercury, and probably greater than that of the comets in their perihelia, or nearest approach to the sun. As regards the epochs of recurrence of the shooting-stars, Mr. Galloway thus remarks: "With respect to the casual observations of the phenomena, the accounts of which are very numerous, the most interesting conclusion which has been inferred from them is the periodical recurrence of shooting-stars in unusual numbers at certain epochs of the year. Of these epochs the most remarkable is that of November, on account of the prodigious number of meteors which have been seen in some years at that time. The principal displays were in 1799, 1832, 1833, and 1834. On the 11th of November, 1799, thousands were observed within a few hours by Humboldt and Bonpland at Cumana; and on the same night by different persons over the whole continent of America, from the borders of Brazil to Labrador; and also in Greenland and Germany. On the 12th of November, 1832, they were seen over the whole of the north of Europe; and on the 12th of November, 1833, the stupendous exhibition took place in North America, which has been so often described. From the accounts of this phenomenon collected by Professor Olmsted, M. Arago computed that the number of meteors on this night amounted to 240,000. In 1834 a similar phenomenon recurred on the night of the 15th of November, but on this occasion the meteors were of a smaller size. In 1835, 1836, and 1838, shooting-stars were observed on the night of the 13th of November, in different parts of the world; but though diligently looked for on the same night in the last few years, do not appear to have been more numerous than on other nights about the same season; a circumstance which has shaken the faith of many in their periodicity."

The different theories which have been proposed to explain the origin and phenomena of the shooting-stars are then stated by Mr. Galloway. The following are the principal of these theories: 1. That the shooting-stars and fire-balls are substances projected from volcanoes in the moon. 2. That they are the fragments of a large planet burst into pieces by some internal explosion, of which Ceres, Pallas, Juno, and Vesta are here supposed to be the principal remaining portions, the smaller fragments continuing to circulate about the sun; and the theory supposes, that when they approach the region of space through which the earth is moving,

they enter the atmosphere, become incandescent, and emit a vivid light. 3. That the meteors have their origin in the zodiacal light. 4. That independently of the planets there exists in the planetary regions myriads of small bodies which circulate about the sun, generally in groups or zones, and that one of these zones intersects the ecliptic about the place through which the earth passes in November. This hypothesis was suggested by Chladni, and adopted by Arago and other eminent astronomers. And 5, the hypothesis of Capocci, of Naples, who regards the aurora borealis, shooting-stars, aerolites, and comets, as having all the same origin, and as resulting from the aggregation of cosmical atoms brought into union by magnetic attraction; the introduction of magnetic forces among the particles being the only feature in which this theory differs from that of M. Chladni. This theory is connected with a field of very interesting inquiry, viz., the connexion between the phenomena of shooting-stars and the aurora borealis, which magnificent phenomenon there seems great reason to regard as being also periodical.

A newspaper is not the proper place in which to discuss the respective merits of these several theories; great difficulties attend every hypothesis hitherto proposed; and beyond the facts that the shooting-stars move with prodigious velocity, and in a direction contrary to that of the earth in its orbit, and appear at great altitudes, often beyond the atmosphere which surrounds our globe, and that their phenomena possess some features in common with aerolites or fire-balls, with comets, and with the aurora, they are involved in profound mystery.

FRENCH COMMERCE.

THE Minister of Commerce has just published the general account of the trade of France for 1840, from which we make the following extracts:—

The foreign commerce of France during 1840 increased in regular progression. The aggregate amount was 2,068,000,000f., being greater than in any preceding year, as will appear by the following table:

Imports and Exports united.

francs.	francs.	francs.
1826 1,126,000,000	1831 1,131,000,000	1836 1,867,000,000
1827 1,168,000,000	1832 1,349,000,000	1837 1,566,000,000
1828 1,218,000,000	1833 1,459,000,000	1838 1,896,000,000
1829 1,224,000,000	1834 1,435,000,000	1839 1,950,000,000
1830 1,211,000,000	1835 1,595,000,000	1840 2,068,000,000
T'als 5,947,000,000	2d 6,969,000,000	3d 9,347,000,000
1st period.	period.	period.
	58*	

Of the two elements of which the above table is composed, the imports have increased in the greatest ratio; at no previous period have the imports reached 100,000,000f., but this last year they have exceeded that amount by 52,000,000 francs. The export trade has exceeded that of 1839 by only 8,000,000f. on 1,011,000,000f., (1 per cent.,) but on comparing the average drawn from the aggregate of the five preceding years, the increase will be found to be equal to 12 per cent. The special commerce of France—namely, the produce she draws from foreign countries, for her own consumption, and those which she exports, as the fruits of her own soil and industry,—is comprised in the 2,063,000,000f., and amounts to 1,442,000,000f., viz., imports 747,000,000f., and exports 695,000,000f. As in the general trade, the increase of the special commerce is shown both in the amount of the imports and of the exports, but more particularly in the former. The comparison with 1839 and with the average of the five preceding years shows a result, in favor of 1840, of increases of 15 and 26 per cent. on the imports, and of 13 and 14 per cent. on the exports. Considered in relation to the distinction which exists between the sea and land commerce, the aggregate is thus divided:

Sea Commerce, 1,481,000,000f., or 71 8-10ths per cent.

Land Commerce, 582,000,000f., or 28 2-10ths per cent.

The proportional amount of these two branches of the foreign commerce was in 1839, for the first, 72 4-10ths; and for the second 27 6-10ths. Thus they have, but very slightly, varied. The amounts of the land commerce, imports and exports united, are divided between the countries whence they are drawn, and to which they are sent, in the following proportions:

Switzerland,	161,000,000f.,	or	27	per cent.
Belgium,	125,000,000	—	22	—
Sardinia,	105,000,000	—	18	—
Germany,	98,000,000	—	17	—
Spain,	72,000,000	—	12	—
Prussia,	18,000,000	—	3	—
Netherlands,	3,000,000	—	1	—

582,000,000f., 100 per cent.

The amounts of the commerce by sea, in 1840, are divided among the countries of Europe, those out of Europe, the French colonies, and the whale and cod fisheries, in the following proportions:

Europe,	757,000,000	or	51	per cent.
Out of Europe,	582,000,000	—	39	—
Colonies and fisheries,	142,000,000	—	10	—

100

In importation, the United States have assumed the first rank, which, in 1839, was occupied by Sardinia. North America stands for 176,000,000f., or 17 per cent. of the whole, and for upwards of 118,000,000f. for the articles for home consumption. Compared with

1839 and the general average, 1840 presents for imported produce from the United States an augmentation of 77 and 60 per cent. on the general trade, and of 37 and 38 on the special trade. This increase bears chiefly on cottons and wools. The quantities imported in 1839 were 432,969 metrical quintals, which in 1840 amounted to 790,009 metrical quintals. Those *acquittés* were last year 485,812 metrical quintals, while in 1839 they were only 348,320 metrical quintals. The value of the merchandise from England, which in 1835 was for the general trade 61,000,000*f.*, and for the special trade 32,000,000*f.*, has in both categories shown a progressive yearly increase until 1840, when it amounted to 110,000,000*f.* and 74,000,000*f.*, being in six years an increase of 80 and 131 per cent. The imports from Belgium were superior to those of the preceding year, without reaching the amount of 1838. Prior to 1835 this power never supplied for our home consumption beyond 60,000,000*f.* per annum; since that period this sum has increased to an average of 71,000,000*f.* In 1840 it amounted to 76,000,000*f.* After these three powers those of Sardinia, Switzerland, Spain, and Russia follow in order as to the importance of their importations into France. Her imports from Germany have not followed the same progression. The value of the merchandise brought in from thence, in 1835, was 57,000,000*f.*; in 1840 it amounted to only 54,000,000*f.*, a sum below the average of the last five years. It is, nevertheless, to be observed that, in comparison to 1839, the imports from this country, both general and special, have increased. This has not been the case with regard to Turkey, Norway, the Dutch Indies, Chili, the French colonies, Algiers, and the French factories in India. The value of the merchandise brought from each of these sources has not reached the sum of 1839. There has been, on the contrary, augmentations in the amount of imports from the British Indies, the two Sicilies, Tuscany, the Hans Towns, Austria, Brazil, Mexico, Hayti, Cuba, the States of Barbary, Denmark, and Egypt. As to exports, there has been a notable diminution in the trade with the United States. Instead of 204,000,000*f.*, (the amount sent to that country in 1839,) the sum in 1840 does not exceed 136,000,000*f.*, a diminution of at least 33 per cent., which has borne upon the special and general trade in equal degrees. Although the exports for England amounted to 160,000,000*f.*, of which 105,000,000*f.* was of our own produce, they were not so great as in 1839; the reduction was of slight importance, being only one per cent. for general, and two per cent. for special commerce. Out of exports to Belgium, to the amount of 51,000,000*f.*, 45,000,000*f.* were from the soil and industry of France. The amount is the same as in 1838, and 6,000,000*f.* more than in 1839. Spain has taken of our special commerce to the amount of 79,000,000*f.*, and our exports to this country have progressively increased for several successive years. Those for Algiers are also increasing; they amounted to 22,000,000*f.*, being three times as much as in 1835. Among other countries, those with which our commerce has most improved are Sardinia, Germany, Brazil, Russia, Chili, and Mexico.

ATHENS REGENERATED.

MR. CHARLES LENORMANT, a member of the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris, with Messrs. Merimee and Ampère, are on a tour of observation in Greece. The following fragment of a letter from Mr. Lenormant, was read at a recent meeting of the Academy, and published in the *Journal des Debats*. From that publication we have made the following translation. It gives a gratifying picture of the progress of regeneration in Greece, which is evidently going on, notwithstanding the melancholy complaints of misgovernment, for which there is undoubtedly too much foundation in fact.

“ATHENS, September 20, 1841.

“I will not speak of Rome, nor of Naples, though I found many things new to me there. I will tell you rather of Greece. The day we passed at Syra was full of interest. The creation of this city on a rock of the Archipelago seems truly the work of enchantment. Twenty-two thousand souls, employed with the greatest activity in a place which formerly counted only a very few wretched habitations, is a result which the liberty of Greece has produced, and which should, in the first place, be shown to those who doubt the good effects of the revolution there. After having wandered for a long time in the narrow streets of that industrious hive, we reached the Cathedral, which has been recently rebuilt with more richness than taste, and decorated with paintings, which in their way are not without merit.

“The church was closed when we reached it; but it was soon opened for the funeral procession of a child. The poor little thing, all covered with flowers, after the Italian fashion, was carried with its face uncovered. Before separating, the mourners took leave of it by kissing it on the forehead. This ceremony was performed without any affectation, and with all the ancient simplicity; we were deeply moved at it. We afterward ascended to the Catholic city, which is situated on the cone above the commercial and schismatical city. So that we had, on one side, workshops, and magazines, in an astonishing activity, and on the other very dirty streets, inhabited promiscuously by Christians and pigs, and four poor churches with a crowd of monks. It is settled in this country that the Catholics do not work; they form a very innocent, but also a very indolent population.

“We set out for Athens in an Austrian packet ship. These packets are much better regulated than ours, (the French,) especially in what concerns the comfort of the passengers. The attendance is excellent. There were on board more than two hundred passengers. The Greeks, men, women, and children, were lying on the deck in the most picturesque confusion. At two o'clock there fell a most pelting rain, and you may imagine the universal confusion. Fortunately the sea was very calm, notwithstanding the storm which reigned above.

“The next day, September 12, at day-break, we had already some time previous passed Cape Sunium, and were coasting along the shores

of Attica. We advanced between Egina, Salamina, and Athens. All the passengers were drying themselves as well as they could after the deluge of the preceding night. At seven o'clock we landed at the Piræus, an entirely new city like Syra, and which has developed itself with an almost equal rapidity, and much more magnificence. We could only give a glance at these new creations, as we were in haste to establish ourselves in Athens.

"To transport travellers into the new capital of Greece, there are found hackney coaches in abundance. The passage through the plain, the vineyard, and olive grove, does not take more than three quarters of an hour. On our arrival we discovered the Parthenon, which overlooks the more insignificant modern city; on the left stood the temple of Theseus; and we reached, by irregular and narrow streets, the most unpoetical thing in the world, a French inn, where we found ourselves very well accommodated at a moderate price, with table and lodging.

"After having established ourselves in our quarters, we went out to make the tour of the ancient city, without, however, mounting to the Acropolis, which cannot be very easily done. We first passed near the portico of Adrian, leaving the Tower of the Winds on our left, and directing our steps towards the Temple of Theseus, which has been converted into a temporary museum, and in which all sorts of antiquities are very badly arranged. Then we passed by the hill of the Areopagus, the Mountain of the Nymphs, the Pnyx, the ancient place for public meetings, and where the tribune of the Athenian orators, cut out of the rock, is still in wonderful preservation. Finally, seeing the Parthenon at a distance, the Odeon of Herod Atticus, and the vestiges (unfortunately there are but few remaining) of the Theatre, where all the chefs d'œuvre of Greek art were first represented, we descended towards the imposing ruins of the Temple of the Olympian Jupiter, near the Illissus, (which at this season, however, has not a drop of water,) and returned to the city by Adrian's arch, visiting on the way the monument of Lysicrates and the Tower of the Winds.

"The modern city is not beautiful; it will become more so as it will form a still more striking contrast with the monuments. Some persons regret, for the poetry of the view, the loss of the Turkish city; but I am not fond of looking at things so exclusively on the picturesque side; and the air of security, if not of happiness, which reigns in the Greek city, is very agreeable in my eyes.

"Be that as it may. Imagine on one side crooked and narrow streets, where ruins are heaped up as in time of war, and in the midst of which some few wretched houses raise their heads; on the other hand some houses in the midst of fields, with a probability that one day intermediate buildings will unite them to the rest of the city, — hardly even in the middle some attempts at pavement, no names to the streets, no numbers on the houses — a Dedalus in a desert. To find the way in this labyrinth, you have for a guide the sun, and the rock of the Acropolis, which is seen from all points, and also some ancient edifices and very pretty Byzantine churches, dispersed about the city. There is

nothing regular excepting two great streets, which intersect each other at right angles. There are still other contrasts. The bazaar is arranged like that in a Turkish city, with low shops and an accumulation of wares, and at an hundred paces distance are the most elegant and carefully arranged saloons. As to costume, the population is divided. The Albanese Soustanelle keeps up a vigorous struggle with the western frock coat, and it is only the Palikari who wear the national costume.

"Athens after all, excepting the monuments, is yet but a great village. But what a marvel, if we reflect a moment on what it was under the Turks! In ten years the country is transformed. At Athens we may count three hundred elegantly built houses, and at the Pyræus one hundred and fifty.

"On the 13th, after having obtained permission, for that is necessary in order to see the Acropolis, we spent the whole day at the Propylea, the Parthenon, and the Temple of Erechtea. It would be impossible for me to write a line of admiration upon what seemed to me more admirable than any thing else in the world. There, one must endeavor to learn and that is all. We made a second visit to the Acropolis, on the 14th, with Mr. Ross, a highly educated man, and who has devoted great attention to the soil of Athens. This examination did not take us less than five hours. The number of marbles uncovered during the few last years, is very considerable. They have been piled up, without any order, in the Temple of Theseus and the Acropolis, and they are sufficient in number to double the treasures of all the European museums, for here the smallest fragments have a superior interest. They form so many distinct chapters in the history of art. In antiquity, Athens was the starting point for thought in every department; every where, even at Rome, only copies and imitations are to be seen; here alone the sentiment of originality reveals itself in every thing we meet. It is true happiness to search in this mine. This serious walk, which called for all our attention, exhausted our strength. We were obliged to take some hours rest.

"At four o'clock we again started, and directed our steps on the side of the Theatre of Bacchus, which we had only been able to perceive at a distance. At the foot of the grotto, situated at the summit of the steps, is presented one of the most beautiful views in the world — perfect in its simplicity, I had almost said in its nudity. No springing vegetation, no extraordinary accident. Some undulations of land crowned by rocks, on the right, the last turn of Hymettus, at the bottom, Egina, Hydra, and the peninsula of Trezena plunging into the sea. There is perfect harmony between this purity of the lines of the Attic landscape, and the taste of which the artists of this city have given proof; so much that one is apt to confound cause and effect. It is this country which has inspired these artists, or one would be tempted to believe that the Athenians have composed a country after their own image.

"On the 17th we went to Eleusis. There are but few monuments on the road which conducts from Athens to Eleusis. The Cephissus is dry, and on a road which takes three hours to pass over, there are but

five or six indications of ancient monuments to be met with. But the landscape possesses wonderful beauty. Returning to Athens, passing over Mount Corydalus, you see the city and the Acropolis, under one of its most admirable aspects.

"At Daphne, on beginning to descend towards the valley of Eleusis, you meet a pretty Byzantine church, built over the ruins of a temple of Apollo; farther down is the basement of a temple of Venus, with the characters *ex voto* engraved on the rock, and inscriptions, which I believe have not yet been copied. From thence the valley, or rather the interior Gulf of Eleusis, is perceived. In turning round the edge of this interior bay, one may amuse himself in giving the names furnished by Pausanias to some ruins, which are found on the way. The fields, where mythological tradition places the origin of agriculture, are now tolerably well cultivated, and one of the poorest villages of Greece, covers the ruins of the great temple. Thirty years since, the society of the dilettanti collected at Eleusis a great many precious indications, dispersed over the surface of the soil. Now the monuments have been taken away, and the indications have disappeared. I have scarcely been able to pick up any inscriptions, and to find among the miserable huts of the village, the traces of the great edifice in which, in antiquity, a crowd of thirty thousand persons assembled. Happily the ruins have not here the bad appearance which I found them to have in Italy. Unformed masses of stone joined by Roman cement speak very little to my imagination. In Greece, large stones are enough to carry back the mind to the age of pure Hellenism. For the rest, do not pity us too much for the fatigue which we suffered in this tour. The Sacred Way is now a carriage route, as convenient as the Bois de Boulogne. We had a little rain on our return; but we shut up the landau. One may go also, and in as convenient a manner, to Cape Sunium, to Marathon, to Pentelicus, to Thebes, even to Livadia. In the Morea, a good carriage-road leads from Corinth to Nauplia, by Argos. In ten years, continental Greece will be as well provided with roads as Italy. The picturesque of the journey is somewhat destroyed by it; but I confess to my shame, that I have been charmed in every point of view, at finding so many facilities, in a country which I had represented to myself under the sad colors in which it appeared to me twelve years since. This chapter of roads is only an imperceptible point in the astonishing ameliorations, of which Greece every where offers the spectacle. Surely Philhellenism does not need justification, but it could not have expected to see its work so soon brought to perfection.

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"This morning, the 19th, I have been working three hours at the Acropolis. It is a place, the beauty of which strikes one more and more every time it is seen. At my first visit I found the view of the Parthenon almost terrible. To-day I was able to account better for this impression. It arose from the ravages produced by a Venetian bomb, which, toward the end of the seventeenth century, caused the explosion of a powder magazine, which was in the middle of the tem-

ple, and destroyed more than half of it. What remains standing of this building has an appearance of having suffered from lightning. The powder has blackened the walls and the pillars. In this wonderful edifice of magnificent blocks of marble, every thing should have perished at the same time. For a monument of the time of Pericles, the Parthenon has made a brave resistance ; but it is a giant conquered and overthrown. The part of the edifice which gives one the most pain, is, undoubtedly, the voluntary and maniacal mutilation of Lord Elgin. There is yet remaining on the western front a figure, which they did not dare to take away, because the removal of it would have caused the fall of the entablature which it covers. There is no hesitation at Athens, respecting the judgment to be given upon the conduct of Lord Elgin. Europe ought to erect by subscription a monument of infamy to his memory, on the platform in front of the Parthenon.

We leave, on the 24th, for Delphos and Thermopylæ.

CHARLES LENORMANT.

ROME.

A CORRESPONDENT of the London Tablet gives the following description of the benevolent and literary institutions of Rome. The charitable institutions are

1. The Mont de Piété, under the superintendence of Cardinal Tosti, and the celebrated antiquarian Cardinal Campana, who is at present in England. 2. The Apostolical Almonry, under an archbishop. 3. The Commission of Subsidies, of which Cardinal Brignole is president ; it has twelve deputies in the different wards or *rioni* of the city, and a branch committee for the direction of public works, styled the *Beneficenza*. The Ospizio at the Thermæ of Dioclesian, which gives employment to many poor children, and contains an establishment for the deaf and dumb of both sexes.

There are eight congregations of charity for the relief of poor families, giving dowries, relieving persons confined in the public prisons, and defending the causes of the poor.

The institutions for the residence of members of the secular clergy are 17 in number.

Besides these, there are,

Conservatories for poor girls, 13.

Hospitia for pilgrims, Jews, members of different nations, &c., 19. Hospitals, some public, others for individuals of specified nations or professions, 29.

The chief institution for education is, of course, the Roman University, or Sapienza, of which Cardinal Giustiniani is chancellor. The various boards of examiners consist of the Theological College, (19 members ;) the Legal College of the Consistorial Advocates, (12) ; the

Medical and Surgical Colleges, (18); Philosophical College, (16); Philological College, (12.)

The professorships are, of theology, 8; civil and canon law, 8; medicine and surgery, 17; philosophy and philology, 14.

The other leading establishments are, the Roman Seminary and the Roman College, the latter being under the direction of the Society of Jesus. There are, moreover, 24 colleges, the members of some of which frequent the public schools of the University, Roman College, or Seminary.

There are, moreover, public schools for elementary education.

The Literary and Scientific Associations, or Academies, confirmed by the Congregation of Studies, are the Theological, for dogmatical, and the Union of St. Paul, for moral, theology; of the Catholics' Religion, for the defence of the church and its institutions; the Arcadian, Tiberinæ and Latin academies, for literary purposes; the Lincei, for natural philosophy, and the Philharmonic and Philodramatic, for music and dramatical recitation.

Seven libraries are open to the public: the Vatican, Casanstensis, Angelica, Alexandrine, Lancesian, and Corsini.

In the Hospital of Santo Spirito, there are museums of anatomy and natural history; and in the university there are museums for chemistry, philosophy, natural pharmacy, zoology, materia medica, and mineralogy; and a botanical garden belongs to the same institution.

In the Vatican Palace are situated the celebrated Vatican Archives, and in the Roman College is an astronomical observatory, under the care of the fathers of the Society of Jesus. (Their observations on the state of the atmosphere appear regularly in the Roman newspapers.)

For the protection and encouragement of antiquities and the fine arts, there is a Board, under the direction of Cardinal Gustiniani, as Camerlengo, with the advice of sixteen assistants. In the second place ranks the Papal Academy of St. Luke, which, besides a body of directors, has schools of painting, sculpture, architecture, geometry, anatomy, history, and mythology. Amongst the academicians are the names of several distinguished foreign artists, of whom John Gibson, Esq. is one.

The Papal archæological academy consists of a president and thirty members.

The artistic congregation, styled *de Virtuosi*, is composed of three bodies of councillors, with a committee of directors. Amongst the sculptors we find the name of John Hogan, Esq. In a note it is stated, — the object of this congregation is to promote the arts to the greater splendor and glory of the Catholic religion. Every year there are six competitions, or *concorsi*; two in each branch, painting, sculpture, and architecture, and every second year a grand *concorso* takes place in all three, which is styled the Gregorian, from the name of the present Pope. This congregation sits at the Pantheon, where it has a gallery.

The two public museums are the Vatican and the Capitoline; each of which has a gallery, as has also the Academy of St. Luke.

The provincial government of the Papal States is administered by

six Legates, who are cardinals, one president, and fourteen prelates, who are styled delegates. Each of these is assisted by several advisers.

Lastly, the Directory gives statistics of the population from Easter 1800 to Easter 1840. We give the following extract :

Year.	Births.	Deaths.	Living.
1800	5,193	8,457	153,004
1810	5,091	3,224	123,023
1820	4,215	4,838	135,046
1830	4,690	4,995	147,285
1831	4,725	5,102	150,666
1832	5,045	4,649	148,458
1833	4,465	3,629	149,920
1834	4,554	3,480	150,016
1835	5,142	3,977	152,457
1836	4,373	3,275	153,678
1837	4,718	3,404	156,552
1838	4,665	12,563	148,903
1839	4,333	3,663	153,720
1840	4,932	4,140	154,632

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT IN INDIA.

SOME public documents, descriptive of the works of public improvement in Bengal, have been lately published in England, which show that a great advance has been made in the course of a few years, in the perfection of the means of communication in that country. The following abstract of a part of these papers, furnished by a correspondent of the London Morning Chronicle, affords very interesting information on this subject, which had not reached us from any other source.

“The progress of internal communication in Bengal is developed at great length in a report made in the month of August last to the government authorities by the military board, which, besides containing an account of what has been done during the official year ending April, 1841, gives a general review for the past twenty years. In this review we find the Grand Turk Road from Calcutta, described as the main artery of communication throughout Bengal and Hindostan, extending to a length of 770 miles, with a general breadth of 30 feet, increased in some places to 40. It has already 1,402 bridges of various extent of opening, has cost, exclusively of convict labor, 1,228,000 rupees, and is likely to cost 10 lacs more during the three years required for its completion. The road from Pooree to Bissenpore, which connects Orissa with Bengal, and which is commonly known as the Jugurmath-

road, is held to be of the next importance, and has cost about 15 lacs, or at the rate of 5,415 rupees the mile. The expense of the road from Calcutta to Kisnagur is estimated at 2,700,000 rupees, or 4,736 rupees the mile for the 70 miles. The road from Sylhet to Gowhatty, the capital of Assam, across the Cassia hills, was in active preparation, and in this line of communication the two torrents of the Bur-panee and the Boga-panee are to be spanned with suspension-bridges. The Deccan road from Mirzapore to Jubbulpore, a distance of 239 miles, and commenced in 1824, had been completed lately; its cost in the fifteen years, exclusive of the labor of convicts, had been eight lacs of rupees. Another road, small in point of expense, but of great importance, was also in progress from the eastern frontier of Bengal, through Cachar, and across the Munipore hills to the limits of the Burmese empire. Besides these roads, which are stated to be the most prominent, a variety of district roads have added greatly to the local convenience of the people, and have proportionately occupied attention. The total outlay for all the roads to which allusion is made has been 5,734,223 rupees, and from which there is no return. A toll on a road is unknown.

The canals, which fringe the eastern part of the city of Calcutta, and connected with the Isamuttee river, are of the highest importance to the welfare of the city, as the produce of all the eastern districts is thus brought to it with little or no risk. These have cost in the whole about 16 1-2 lacs of rupees, which now includes the erection of five suspension bridges. To improve Tolly's Nullah, seven suspension bridges have been thrown across it at a cost of 179,381 rupees. The canals west of the Jumna have been repaired at an expense of 1,566,500 rupees, which, with a farther outlay on the Dooab Canal, west of the Jumna, of 579,164 rupees, makes, with other expenditure, a total outlay of 4,963,288 rupees in constructing and repairing canals in the presidency. The canals are very productive of revenue, for the tolls on those in the vicinity of Calcutta are said to yield on an average 121,800 rupees a year, while the annual average charge for their maintenance appears to be about 45,000 rupees. Hence it is argued, that the Government cannot do better than lay out funds for their extension and improvement. In reference to these canals it is remarked, that while the toll remained at the rate of one rupee the 100 maunds, the proceeds were 126,000 rupees; but when the Government liberally reduced the levy by one half, they fell in the succeeding year to about 60,000 rupees. This fall, it was ultimately discovered, arose mainly from the corruption of the native collectors, which had been so far remedied by close observance, that in the last year (1840) the collection again rose to 122,000 rupees, showing that the state receives the same return as when the impost was double its present amount. The canals east and west of the Jumna exhibit the most gratifying results, not only in respect of the means they supply to the agricultural community for the irrigation of upwards of 100,000 acres of land, but in direct money returns. The sum expended on the canals west of the

Jumna by the British Government has been 1,566,500 rupees, and the annual amount levied as water rent is 258,826 rupees, or more than 16 1-2 per cent. While the outlay has therefore been in the whole 15 1-2 lacs of rupees, the returns up to the end of the year 1840 had been 21 1-2 lacs. In restoring the Dooab Canal, the cost to the Government was 5 lacs and 80,000 rupees. The direct return in rupees up to the end of 1840 has been 5 lacs and 13,000 rupees. At the end of the official year, the whole sum expended by the Government had been reimbursed to the public coffers, and an annual income of 6,000 rupees might be expected for the future. The tolls on the Nuddea rivers produce a clear annual surplus of 1 lac and 12,000 rupees. And now, adverting more particularly to what has been done during the official year of 1840, we find that in the department of canals the Government has sanctioned an outlay of 23,000 rupees for deepening a canal in the Hidgelee district for the express object of facilitating the transportation of salt. The other expenses in connexion with canals have been incurred partly in reference to those near Calcutta, and partly to those on the east and west of the Jumna. The former appear to have cost in necessary repairs a sum of about 14,000 rupees, independently of an iron suspension bridge at Ooltadanga, over the circular canal, amounting to 12,000 rupees. On the Dooab canal has been expended 71,500 rupees in the construction of aqueducts, with the view to the further extension of the benefits of irrigation. The total amount of money expended in canals during the year under consideration was 2,57,813 rupees; the returns 4,69,197 rupees, being a clear profit of 2,11,384 rupees. The new roads were progressing steadily. The road from Burdwar to Benares is completed as far as regards earth-work, to its full height and width. On this undertaking there had been an outlay of 6,00,000 rupees, and it will require an equal outlay to complete it. The road from Patna to Gya would have the benefit of a grant of 70,000 rupees, and for the road to Darjeeling a revised estimate of 28,000 rupees would be appropriated. The proposed road from Agra to Bombay had been negatived from the fact of the enormous expense it would entail. The total outlay in public works for that period was 9,69,686 rupees, which produced a return of 4,69,197 rupees, thus leaving 5,00,489 rupees as the difference between expenditure and return. On this the India journals remark, that it is an expenditure of less than one per cent. on the land revenues of these provinces, and that however much the public may be grateful for these improvements, it exhibits much niggardness as compared with the revenue the Government authorities derive from the territory of which they are the useful and necessary embellishment.

A correspondent, who compliments us on the satisfactory account we gave of the progress of Arracan a few days ago, wishes it to be stated, and which was not noticed among the causes which were laid before us as contributing to the increase in the wealth and population of that province, that slavery was abolished there in the year 1834. He states farther, that Arracan is the only province in India where slavery has been totally abolished.

CHRONOLOGY.

FOREIGN.

CHINA. We have news from China nearly two months later than that given in the last Number of the Chronicle, [p. 470] up to the 24th of August, on which day the steamer *Atalanta* sailed from Canton for Bombay, with Sir Gordon Bremer, the late commander of the fleet in the China seas, and Capt. Charles Elliot on board. The new plenipotentiary, Sir Henry Pottinger, and Admiral Sir William Parker, arrived at Macao, August 9, in the steamboat *Sesostriis*. They made their passage, with their respective suites, from England, in the very short period of 67 days, including a stay of ten days in Bombay.

The new plenipotentiary on the 13th despatched his Secretary, Major Malcolm, to Canton, with intelligence of his arrival, and a copy of the British demands to be despatched to the Emperor. The Kwang-Chow-Foo, (Mayor of Canton,) intimated a wish to receive the despatch in person, and the Secretary had an interview with him at the hall of the Company's Factory.

The Kwang-Chow-Foo a few days afterwards went to Macao attended by a linguist, for the purpose of having an interview with Sir Henry Pottinger, who, however, declined seeing him, and deputed his secretary to hold a conference. His object was said to be to offer ten millions of dollars, or even a larger sum, as an inducement to the plenipotentiary to relinquish the intention of proceeding to the northward with his military force; but the proposition was not listened to.

The purport of the communication addressed by the plenipotentiary to the emperor of China is not known from official authority, but the London Times states that according to a private letter from Macao, dated August 22, "which is deemed in the city very good authority," he had demanded under his instructions from the government, the assent of the Chinese government to the following conditions, as the basis of a treaty of peace between the two powers.

"1st. The opening of all the Chinese ports situated on the eastern coast to all European nations, without exception,

who will be permitted to trade freely, subject to a moderate duty on the entry and departure of their vessels. 2d. The abolition of the monopoly hitherto enjoyed by the Hong merchants. 3d. The appointment of an English ambassador to reside at the Court of Peking. 4th. Indemnity to the British merchants for the loss sustained by the destruction of opium and the abolition of the trade."

As had been generally anticipated, a force was despatched from Macao to act against the northern provinces, comprising the whole available military and naval force of the British in those regions. It sailed for Amoy, on the 21st, consisting of 9 ships of war, 4 armed steamers, and 22 transports, carrying in all about 3,000 men.

It was currently believed, that Amoy would first be captured, and its fortifications destroyed, and that Ningpo and Tinghae would share the same fate.

A notification was presented to each merchant at Canton, that as hostilities would probably soon recommence at the north, they must keep themselves and property out of the way of mischief. In the mean time, the truce entered into by Captain Elliot on the 27th of May, continued in force, and down to the latest date the trade was open, and vessels went up to Whampoa.

Buildings had been begun at Hong Kong, on lands lately purchased by the merchants. There were a few British and several American merchants at Canton. Business was at a stand still, the city having been completely drained of money. Of the Chinese ransom, 2,500,000 dollars were sent in the *Callopie* to Calcutta, and 1,500,000 in the *Convoy* to London.

On the 21st and 26th of July there were two most violent and destructive typhoons in the bay of Canton. The British cutter *Louisa*, in which Admiral Bremer and Capt. Elliot had sailed from Macao on the 29th for Hong Kong, was wrecked on the island of Kowlan. Their Excellencies, after escaping the dangers of the tempest, received some rough treatment from the Chinese, but a compassionate individual, who called himself a *comprador*, was induced to take them to

his house and give them refreshment, and subsequently to carry them back in a small Chinese boat to Canton, where he received \$3,000 for his services.

MEXICO, September. For some weeks General Santa Anna had been at the head of a military movement for effecting a dissolution of the government, and its reorganization under himself on the basis of the constitution of 1824. On the second of September he arrived at the capital and took by assault the fort of St. Francisco. Some farther skirmishing ensued, which continued for some weeks, each party having a force in the city, and each quite willing to wait for reinforcements.

Matters did not remain long, however, in this undecided state; and without the intervention of an action, Bustamante yielded the supreme power to Santa Anna. After a good deal of explanation on each side of the burning attachment to liberty which signalized the high contracting parties, and their resolution to abjure for the future all civil discord, Santa Anna, by the agreement which he himself proposed on the 28th of September, was to name a Congress for the formation of a new constitution, by which to settle all difficulties of the government. This arrangement was completed on the 6th of October, and Santa Anna accordingly selected a number of deputies, of course all attached to himself, who proceeded to act as the Congress of the different states of the republic. One of the professions by which he attained power was his zeal for the federal constitution of 1824. It has not yet appeared how sacredly he will regard that instrument, but he has sent to Yucatan certain commissioners to treat respecting the return to the confederacy of that republic, which left it nominally on account of the violation of that constitution.

The following names are given as the appointments in the new Ministry: Tornel, Minister of War; Pedraza, of the Navy; Castillon, of the Interior; and Garcia, of Finance.

CONSTANTINOPLE, September 23. The steamer Nile arrived from Alexandria, bringing five million piastres in tribute from Mehemet Ali.

ADEN. Serious disasters have occurred in this new settlement. Our advices are to the 15th September. A fire on the 5th had burned down five officers' houses and the lines of the 10th regiment. Every thing was destroyed, and some people in-

jured. On the 7th a tremendous rain came down, and the mountain streams carried away a boy into the sea. On the 11th the Arabs attacked the town, but were repulsed. They intended shortly to make another attempt in stronger force.

SPAIN, October. In this month an extensive conspiracy broke out, which appears to have been directed by the queen mother Christina, now in Paris, or by her immediate advisers. It had for its object her restoration to the office of Regent.

A concerted rising was planned to take place in various parts of Spain, arrangements being made that the different movements should be properly connected. The first movement was made in Pampeluna, on the morning of the first of October, when Gen. Leopold O'Donnell, who appears to have been commissioned from Christina, in Paris, but a few weeks before, took possession of the citadel of that town. The citadel was regularly garrisoned by two divisions of troops, who did duty on alternate days in rotation with each other. O'Donnell secured both of these by bribes and promises, and at the head of one of them, presented himself at the gate and demanded admission of the other, which was immediately granted him, and he found himself therefore at the head of one thousand men and one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, which he could probably maintain for a considerable time if properly provisioned.

Ribiero, however, the Viceroy of the Province of Navarre, took no part in these insurrectionary movements. There yet remained a battalion in Pampeluna faithful to the government, and at the head of this, the National Guard, and such other force as he could collect, Ribiero attempted to shut up O'Donnell in the citadel, which is in the centre of the town, of which he had taken possession. This blockade, however, was nothing more than a close observation of the place, for whenever Ribiero attempted any force on the adherents of O'Donnell within or without the citadel, he retaliated by a bombardment of the town, which was so effective that all offensive proceedings were at once suspended.

O'Donnell was in communication with Ortigosa, formerly a brigadier in the Carlist army, and at this time at the head of six hundred men near the town. On the 12th, General Ayerbe, who superseded Ribiero in the service of government, entered Pampeluna, having

with him, however, only one regiment of the royal guard, which had revolted, but had returned to their allegiance. He held some communication with O'Donnell, whose fire on the town, which had been again excited, at once ceased. The same evening he left the citadel with a considerable portion of his force, but no interruption was offered by Ayerbe, who had been assured by him, that in case of any attack the bombardment would recommence. O'Donnell's intention was said to be to join Ortigosa, recruit his forces, and obtain provisions, and then to return to the citadel.

Meanwhile, the final plan of the conspirators had been to attack the palace in Madrid with some regiments whose officers had been seduced, as soon as the populace were informed of the rising in Pampeluna. Espartero, the Regent, however, received with the news, information respecting the treacherous officers, and immediately issued orders for their arrest. They were consequently obliged to conceal themselves; but notwithstanding, on the evening of the 7th, an attack was made by several disaffected companies and parts of regiments on the palace, with the hope of securing the Queen. The companies of guards on duty had been bribed, and offered no resistance to the attack, and the Queen would have been captured had it not been for the gallant resistance of Colonel Dulce and nineteen old halberdiers who were on duty at the time. They defended the royal apartments from half past seven till one in the morning; at which time the division made in their favor by the faithful regiments which had arrived at the scene of action without the palace, under the command of Espartero, was so powerful, that the rebels were glad to withdraw. The Queen and suite were in great danger. Some of the apartments of her suite of rooms were pierced with balls, and the doors, walls, and furniture, are represented as appearing like so many targets, after the action was over.

The next day Espartero proceeded to the palace in state, and was cordially received by the people, and he immediately promoted Colonel Dulce to the rank of Brigadier. He addressed each of the halberdiers separately, promoted them and gave them at the same time the cross of San Fernando. Madrid, after the crushing of this attempt, was perfectly quiet.

These were the most important points of the development of the insurrectionary

movements. Bilboa and a few other places declared against the Regent, but in most of these places the government authorities had entirely suppressed the insurgents, whose cause now seems to be nearly abandoned, except by O'Donnell, whose chief reliance is the citadel of Pampeluna.

Don Francisco Paula, a younger brother of Don Carlos, and uncle to the Queen, proceeded from Paris into Spain, despite the interference of some of the local authorities in the south of France, and offered his influence and means in the service of the constituted authorities. Even Christina herself was in no condition to take an active part in the affair which was got up for her benefit, having within a fortnight borne a son to her second husband, Munoz. She publicly denied any knowledge of, or connexion with, the conspiracy, but no credit was attached to her disclaimers by the best informed parties. General Leon, the leader of the insurrection in Madrid, a brave and approved officer, suffered death for his attempt, by the sentence of a court-martial, on the 15th of October. Several others of the rebels were also punished capitally.

It was suggested in some quarters, that Louis Philippe had connived at this insurrection from motives of policy, desiring to connect the government of Spain in some manner with that of France; but this surmise appears to be entirely unjust and unfounded. A French army of observation, consisting of about thirty thousand men, was stationed for a short time on the frontier, but the greater part of it was subsequently withdrawn. Meanwhile a self-constituted junta in Barcelona undertook the duty of destroying the fortifications of that place, under the pretence of advocating the party and views of Espartero. The regent, however, disavowed them and their proceedings entirely, sent a military force against them, and compelled this junta to take refuge in France on the 13th of November.

LONDON, Oct. 18. The buildings on each side of the Thames were visited with one of the most severe inundations ever known. For several days a succession of gales from the east and northeast had prevailed. On the night of the 17th the wind increased to a hurricane, and on the afternoon of the next day, the tide rose so rapidly in consequence, that the river had risen above the highest ordinary level more than an hour before the turn

of the tide. In consequence, as the river continued to rise, the wharves and jetties with the streets, and the cellars and other underground apartments in the neighborhood, were submerged with water. The consequences were distressing. Some lives were lost, and a great quantity of property destroyed. It is computed that no less than ten thousand houses suffered by the irruption. The Blackwall railway was overflowed at the Blackwall terminus, and the trains stopped running in consequence.

AMBASSADORS UNDER THE NEW MINISTRY. LONDON, October 19. Lord Cowley was appointed Minister to France; Lord Stuart de Rothsay, to Russia; Sir Robert Gordon, to Austria; Sir Stratford Canning, to the Sublime Porte; Lord Burgerssh, to Prussia.

LONDON, Oct. 25. **FRAUD ON THE EXCHEQUER.** There was detected this day a fraud to a considerable amount on the Exchequer, the details of which, as ascertained by subsequent legal investigation, were these:—

The exchequer bills issued by Government are printed, but always bear the signature of the Chancellor of the Exchequer. As it frequently happens, however, that some of the printed blanks are injured before the bills are issued, more blanks are always printed than are actually needed. These blanks are placed in the charge of one of the clerks in the Exchequer office; for some years Mr. Beaumont Smith has had this charge. It appears that for some years this person, by means of the facilities he has thus obtained, has issued fictitious bills, duplicates in fact of real bills. It has not yet been satisfactorily ascertained whether he obtained fraudulently the real signature of Lord Monteagle, the minister whose duty it is to sign the bills, or whether the signature was forged. If forged, it is admirably well done.

When bills are issued from the Exchequer office, they are cut off from the printed sheet, in such a manner that a part of the paper is left in the possession of the officers issuing them; in precisely the way in which a merchant secures himself against a counterfeit of his bank checks. On the 25th of October, a number of Exchequer bills were brought into the office to be converted into other Government securities, but on application to these counterfoils, or parts of the sheet remaining, they evidently were not the bills which had been cut from that paper,

although by their numbers they professed to be. Smith was one of three clerks, whose duty it was to compare the bills with the counterfoils. As soon as it appeared that two or three of the bills were not those which had been issued regularly from the office, he took one of the other clerks aside and made a disclosure of the fraud.

He had issued, as we have said, these fictitious bills, to a greater or less amount, for some years. Till recently, however, his measures had been so taken as to prevent any detection. The Exchequer bills, for the purpose, apparently, of preventing fraud, are frequently called in and others issued in their places. Smith had taken the precaution, however, in delivering his to the parties with whom he dealt to make provision that those identical bills should be returned to him; he made them special deposits, as it were, on which he obtained funds. Whenever he found that the bills were to be called in, he redeemed his own, making a new issue as soon as possible. On the funds thus obtained, he speculated, in concert with a broker named Rapallo, who was the party with whom he had deposited the bills, but their speculations it appears were always unsuccessful, and eventually, by some failure on his part to redeem his bills, or by some other means not ascertained, the bills were put in circulation, and fell back on the Exchequer office and were detected.

The amount of fraudulent issues is about £131,000. Government at once called in these bills, and about £100,000 were brought in at the Exchequer office. It has not yet appeared, however, whether the holders of them will receive their value from Government, which they declare they should do, on the ground, which is certainly tenable, that the bills had the genuine stamp upon them, which is the legal proof, or one of the legal proofs of their genuineness, and that innocent holders, as it is not doubted all the parties in question are, ought to be held free from loss. The trials of Smith and Rapallo had not come on at our latest dates; one of them was to be admitted as Queen's evidence against the other.

BELGIUM, October 30. An insurrection was checked by the arrest of several persons concerned in it, which was to have broken out, according to their arrangements, on the next day. General Vauversimpers and General Vandermere were at the head of it; they acted with

several other disaffected persons, principally disbanded military officers, with the avowed object of reuniting Belgium with Holland, taking advantage of the dissatisfaction of Ghent, Bruges, and some other parts of the kingdom which had lost their trade with the Dutch colonies by the separation of 1830. The movement did not appear, however, on the trials of the criminals and other investigations, to be very deeply based or widely extended.

LONDON, October 30. FIRE IN THE TOWER. At half past ten in the evening, fire was discovered in the tower of London, that part of the building known as the Round Tower. The alarm was immediately spread, and great excitement prevailed. The tower engines were immediately brought to the spot, and soon after other engines from the city, but it was with difficulty that they could be brought to bear upon the height of the Round Tower.

It was at first hoped that the destruction might be confined to the Round Tower, but it soon communicated to the roof of the Armory. It was soon found a hopeless attempt to save that building, and attention was directed to saving as many of the arms and valuables as possible. At 20 minutes past 11, the flames were issuing from every part of the roof, and soon shot up to an alarming height. At 1 o'clock the Clock Tower fell in with a tremendous crash. Great efforts were made for the preservation of the White Tower, and the Church of St. Peter, which proved successful.

The Jewel Tower next attracted the attention of the authorities. The wind, having somewhat shifted, blew the flames in that direction, and its destruction appeared inevitable. As soon as this was known, measures were taken to have the valuables removed; the room in which the jewels were kept was unlocked, and after some difficulty the iron railing surrounding their cases was broken down, and access obtained to them by the authorities. A most extraordinary scene then presented itself; the warders carrying crowns, sceptres, and other valuables of royalty, between groups of soldiers, police, firemen, and others, from the Jewel Tower to the Governor's residence, which is situated at the very farthest extremity of the green. None, however, sustained the slightest injury, and by dint of most prompt exertion, the Jewel Tower itself was saved.

At two o'clock the fire was at its greatest height, and at three it began to subside. The main building of the Tower was in great danger, and copious streams of water were poured into it in every direction, and it was not until four or five o'clock, that all danger of a farther spread of the conflagration was at an end. The value of the property destroyed was supposed to exceed a million sterling.

DUBLIN, November 1. Daniel O'Connell, Esq., well known in Ireland and elsewhere as the leader of the Irish Repealers and Reformers, was elected Lord Mayor of Dublin.

LONDON, November 9. The Queen was safely delivered of a young prince, the heir-apparent to the crown of Great Britain. He takes at his birth the title of the Duke of Cornwall, and the Scotch title of Earl of Renfrew. The title of Prince of Wales is conferred by patent, issued usually a short time after his birth. The Queen rapidly recovered her health.

NOVEMBER 25. Sir Francis Chantrey, the celebrated sculptor, whose works are well known in this country and Europe, died suddenly at his residence.

NOVEMBER 25. THAMES TUNNEL. A thoroughfare was effected in this work, and made use of, for the first time, by the whole of the directors and some of the original subscribers, who had assembled upon the occasion. The shield having been advanced to the shaft at Wapping, a considerable opening was cut in the brickwork, and it was through this the party who had met at Rotherhithe were enabled to pass, thus opening the first subterranean communication between the opposite shores of the river.

Upon their arrival at the shaft, the party were greeted by the workmen with most hearty cheers. A curious and interesting incident was connected with the event: a few bottles of wine, preserved since the dinner on the occasion when the foundation stone was laid, with the understanding that it was to be drunk only when it could be carried under the Thames, having been opened, and enjoyed by the company to the health of her Majesty and the infant Prince.

TEXAS. The official returns of the Presidential election show the following result:

For President, Houston,	7,508
" " Burnett,	2,574
For Vice-President, Burleson,	5,088
" " Hunt,	3,942
" " McAfee,	27

DOMESTIC.

NOVEMBER 28. The steam-packet Savannah, from New York for Savannah, was lost off Cape Hatteras in a severe gale. There were nearly forty persons on board of her, all of whom, with two exceptions, were saved in her boats.

DECEMBER 2. The brig Creole, Capt. Enson, of Richmond, arrived at New Orleans, after having touched at Nassau, N. P., under the following singular circumstances. The brig had a cargo of tobacco, with one hundred and thirty five slaves, and four or five other passengers. On the 7th ult., at 8 P. M., the brig was hove to, in the belief that she was approaching Abaco. The next day, after the passengers and crew not on duty had retired, at about half-past 9 P. M., the slaves mutinied and murdered a passenger named Hewell, owner of a portion of the slaves, by stabbing him with a bowie knife. They wounded the captain and one of the hands dangerously, the chief mate and another of the hands severely. But little defence could be made, as the victims were totally unprepared for an attack, and had but one musket on board, while the slaves were armed with pistols, knives and bludgeons made of handspikes. There is reason to believe, that the whole plot was arranged before they left Richmond.

Having obtained possession of the vessel, they broke open the trunks and ransacked the whole cargo. They spared the lives of the mate, passengers, and a part of the crew, on condition they should be taken immediately to Abaco, an English island. Forced to obey, the crew set sail and arrived at Nassau, N. P., on the 9th ult. On landing, the American consul had the captain and two of the crew immediately taken on shore and their wounds dressed, while every attention was paid to the wounded on board. The consul likewise requested the Governor of N. Providence to place a guard on board, to prevent the slaves from going ashore, as he well knew that if this were not done, it would be impossible to secure the guilty perpetrators of the murder. The request of the consul was granted, and an investigation of the affair was conducted by two magistrates of Nassau. The captain also took the testimony of the passengers and crew. Nineteen slaves were identified as having participated in the mutiny and murder. They were placed in confinement until farther orders, the

Governor refusing to have them sent to America under the circumstances. The remainder were liberated by her Majesty's authorities, on the ground that the slaves must be considered and treated as passengers, having the right to land in boats from the shore whenever they thought proper. The captain was so seriously injured, that he was unable to go on with his vessel. Two of the slaves confined for the murder subsequently died, one of them from the wounds he received in the affray. Several of the others shipped for Jamaica as passengers.

DEC. 15. MASSACHUSETTS BANKS. The following is an aggregate statement of the condition of the Banks of Massachusetts of the 4th of September last, prepared from the returns legally made for the use of the Legislature. It will be recollected that these returns are made annually, in obedience to a requisition made by the Governor and Council, on some Saturday preceding the date of such requisition, not previously known to the banks.

The object of this provision is that the returns may exhibit the state of the banks, as shown by the books, at a time not previously anticipated, and when of course their condition is not specially prepared, for making a more favorable exhibition than on ordinary days. The requisition this year was issued on the 20th of October.

Amounts due from the Banks.

	25 Banks in Boston.	114 Banks in the State.
Capital Stock paid in,	\$17,610,000	\$33,360,900
Circulation, \$5 and over,	3,042,122	7,889,677
Circulation, under \$5,	444,356	1,609,435
Net profits on hand,	1,795,811	2,792,114
Balances due to other banks,	4,258,664	4,413,506
Deposits not on interest,	4,961,338	7,144,900
Deposits, bearing interest,	879,657	1,459,822
Total, due from Banks,	32,991,978	58,679,474

Resources of the Banks.

Gold, silver, and other coin in the banks,	2,477,221	3,111,838
Real estate,	711,650	1,238,191

Bills of other banks in the State,	1,910,039	2,121,618
Bills of banks elsewhere,	158,125	192,819
Balances due from other bks,	2,293,226	4,461,047
Debts due to the banks, including notes and bills discounted,	25,441,717	47,553,961

Total of resources, 32,991,978 58,679,474

Amount of last semi-annual dividend,	520,750	992,145
Amount of reserved profits,	870,341	1,383,114
Am't. of debts on stock,	326,039	941,789
Am't. of debts considered doubtful,	735,319	1,043,165

Average rate of dividends in Boston 2 96-100 per cent.; do. of 89 banks out banks out of Boston, 2 -99-100 per cent.; do. of 114 banks in the State, 2 97-100.

The amount of bills in actual circulation, after deducting the amount held by other banks, mostly as agents for returning them after their redemption, is \$7,387,494. This amount is doubtless considerably greater than would be shown by returns made at the present time

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF RHODE ISLAND. The amount of circulation of the Banks of Rhode Island on Nov. 1st, 1841, was \$1,828,378 06

On the 1st of December, 1841, it was 1,599,814 00

Circulation reduced, 228,564 00

The amount of specie in the banks of this State on the 1st of November, 1841, was \$382,082 96

On the 1st of December it was 296,756 35

Specie reduced, 85,326 61

Of the circulation, there is held by the banks, 227,135 00

In the hands of the people, 1,372,679 00

NEW YORK CANALS. The following shows the amount of tolls received on the canals during each year, since the Erie Canal was partially opened in 1820:

Tolls rec'd.	Tolls rec'd.	Tolls rec'd.	Tolls rec'd.
1820, \$5,437 34	1824, 340,761 07	1825, 563,112 97	1826, 762,003 60
1821, 14,388 47	1825, 563,112 97	1826, 762,003 60	1827, 859,058 48
1822, 64,072 00	1826, 762,003 60	1827, 859,058 48	
1823, 152,958 33	1827, 859,058 48		

1828, 838,444 65	1835, 1,548,972 39
1829, 813,137 45	1836, 1,614,680 38
1830, 1,056,922 12	1837, 1,293,129 80
1831, 1,223,801 98	1838, 1,588,847 87
1832, 1,229,483 47	1839, 1,610,382 02
1833, 1,463,715 22	1840, 1,775,747 57
1834, 1,339,799 56	1841, 2,033,504 27

DECEMBER 6. INDIANA FINANCES. The Message of Governor Bigger, on the opening of the Legislature of Indiana on the 6th instant, contains a statement of the condition of the public works, and of the finances of the State. It has been the misfortune of the State of Indiana to have undertaken a system of public improvements, not only of a magnitude entirely disproportioned to the available resources of the State, but of a kind not likely to be productive, if completed, in the present state of population and business. It was a work undertaken for posterity, and with the intention that posterity should pay the debt. It seems to have been forgotten that the charge of current interest would fall upon the present generation, for which the income of the works would have been inadequate in the present state of population, if the works were finished.

The extent of improvements projected, consisting of canals and railroads, is 1291 miles. Of this extent, 281 miles are finished at a cost of \$8,164,528. The estimated cost of completing the works is \$11,826,227, making the total estimate \$19,914,424. The parts completed, being in detached portions, bring in little or no income.

The public debt of the State amounts to \$15,088,146, which the Governor classifies under two heads. The first is called *suspended debt*, and consists of bonds of the State which have been sold on a credit, and for which no consideration has been received by the State. The following are the amounts:

1. Due from the Morris Canal and Banking Company for bonds sold to increase the stock of the State Bank, [nearly] \$1,000,000
2. From the same, for bonds sold for internal improvement purposes, 1,146,000
3. From other Companies, 894,000
4. Cost of Cohen property, 341,000

Total amount of suspended debt, \$3,381,009

Of this the Governor says:

"A part of the debt may be recovered, but how much, or when, are questions it

is impossible to answer. One thing, however, is pretty certain, that very little of it can be collected in time to be used for any immediate purpose."

The residue is stated as follows:

1. Bonds sold for the Wabash and Erie Canal,	\$1,727,000
2. Bonds disposed of for internal improvement purposes,	7,050,000
3. Principal due the State Bank for advances on the public works,	641,500
4. Hypothecated bonds sold and unsold,	1,069,000
5. For Bonds sold to the Morris Canal and Banking Company, to increase the capital stock of the State Bank,	1,000,000
	<hr/>
	\$11,487,500

The annual interest on this sum, including exchange, commission, &c., is stated at \$615,000. The certain means which the State at present possesses will reduce this sum to \$559,000.

Upon this statement of the condition of the treasury, the Governor remarks, as follows:

"Such is actually our condition, and candor and justice to ourselves, and to our creditors, require us to acknowledge, that we have neither under our control nor in prospect, for some time to come, the means to discharge the interest on the whole of our public debt. Nevertheless, it becomes us to leave no efforts untried, to recover our former position. Indiana possesses an enterprising and rapidly increasing population. The natural resources of the State, as they shall be developed by the industry of her citizens, will add continually to her wealth, and this very addition will result in a constant relative diminution of the burdens of the public debt. It is our misfortune that we cannot preserve the faith of the State unimpaired. Still we should not despair of recovering from our difficulties while any means remain within our power with which we can work. Although, whatever means available at present, are insufficient to pay all the interest on our internal improvement debt, yet can we not with these, and such other resources as can be reached, properly and prudently applied, place the State in a condition to pay her debts, and finally redeem her sunken credit?"

The taxable property in the State is valued at \$95,518,763, which is an in-

crease of between five and six millions during the past year. The balance in the Treasury, Oct. 31, is \$29,774. The revenue received the present year for State purposes will be \$459,884. The expenses for the ensuing year are estimated at \$92,750.

From subsequent transactions in the Indiana legislature, we infer that at least that portion of the state debt which is mentioned above as suspended, will be repudiated; that is, that the State, will disavow it, or decline paying it, principal or interest, as having never received any consideration for the bonds under which it is contracted.

KENTUCKY. From a statement of the revenue for the year 1841, from the various sources of taxation, is \$399,356 18. The revenue of the last year was \$275,353 46, being a difference in favor of the present year of \$124,002 72 cents, which difference results from the additional tax of five cents imposed by the last Legislature. The decrease in the estimated value of the taxable property in Kentucky, during the same period has been only \$8,401,248. The total value last year was \$272,250,027. The total value for 1841 is \$263,845,749.

DECEMBER 22. The landing of the "pilgrim fathers" was celebrated at Plymouth with great enthusiasm and spirit. A discourse was pronounced by J. R. Chandler, Esq. of Philadelphia, and a public dinner and ball made up the festivities of the occasion.

DECEMBER 28. A large number of gentlemen met at Albany to celebrate the completion of the great western railroad of Massachusetts, which has been so many years in progress. A large deputation went through from Boston on the preceding day. On the 29th, a number of the citizens of Albany proceeded to Boston, at the request of the authorities of the city, and a public dinner was given on the 30th in Boston, to complete the festivities which crowned the completion of a work of such signal importance.

ELECTIONS.

GEORGIA. We announced in our last number the result of the fall election in Georgia. The number of votes for each candidate, as officially announced, was for McDonald, (Dem.) 37,847; Dawson, (Whig,) 33,703.

NOVEMBER 2. NEW JERSEY. The two branches of the legislature met in con-

vention for the election of a Governor. The convention had been delayed some days by the refusal of the Senate, in which was a Democratic majority, to join the House. On the 1st inst., however, the Senate agreed to go into convention. Governor Pennington, (Whig,) was re-elected Governor by a vote of 44 to 30.

NOVEMBER 2. MICHIGAN. The State election was held in this State. The Democratic party prevailed throughout the State by very large majorities, only four Whigs being elected to the legislature. The State was Whig last year.

NOVEMBER 3. NEW YORK. The election for members of the State legislature closed this day. The result was a Senate of 15 Whigs and 17 Democrats, three fourths of the Senate holding over from last year, and a House of Assembly strongly Democratic. Both branches were Whig last year.

MASSACHUSETTS. The annual election of State officers took place. The result was the reelection of Governor John Davis (Whig) over Judge Morton (Dem.), and Boltwood, (Abolition.) The vote, as unofficially ascertained, was for Davis, 56,173; Morton, 51,379; scattering, mostly for Boltwood, 3,665. A Whig Senate and House were also chosen.

CONGRESSIONAL.

The second session of the twenty-seventh Congress began at Washington on the 6th of December. A quorum of both Houses appeared, and on the next day the President sent his annual Message to Congress.

The Message began with an allusion to the relations of this country and Great Britain, and made a brief allusion to the McLeod case, in respect to the international law of which it took similar ground to that occupied by Mr. Webster, in his letter to Mr. Fox on that subject, (Mon. Chron. p. 203.) It recommended, however, that express legal provisions should be made for the removal, in future, of such cases to the federal courts. It spoke farther of the avowal by Great Britain of the attack on the Caroline, and its right to make such an attack, and of its claim to the right of search of American vessels, as urged in a recent correspondence between our Minister at London and the British government, rights which the President argued against, declaring that they could not be acknowledged by our government. At the same time he called

the attention of Congress to the laws for the suppression of the slave trade.

The review contained in the Message of the state of our relations with other powers, does not present any information of particular interest. It informed Congress of the failure of a treaty with the kingdom of Belgium, arising apparently from the extreme jealousy of the legislative chambers, of any measure which may seem to open the field of competition in any branch of trade to foreigners. In accounting for the non-ratification of a treaty of commerce with the Republic of Ecuador, it is mentioned that the Congress failed to hold a session at the time appointed in January last. The session referred to was actually opened, though it probably came to an unsatisfactory close. Some account is given of the opening of the session, in the last number of the Monthly Chronicle, [p. 466,] and of the Message of the President, Juan Jose Flores. In that message the treaties with Spain and Great Britain, and a treaty begun but not completed with France, are spoken of, but there is no mention of any treaty with this country.

The joint commission under the convention with Texas, to ascertain the true boundary between the two countries, has concluded its labors; but the final report of the commissioner of the United States has not been received. It is understood, however, that the meridian line, as traced by the commission, lies somewhat farther east than the position hitherto generally assigned to it, and, consequently, includes in Texas some part of the territory which had been considered as belonging to the States of Louisiana and Arkansas.

The President spoke in encouraging terms of the prospect of a completion of the Florida war.

The statement of the condition of the Finances is not of a very flattering character. The receipts of the treasury for the three first quarters of the year, with the balance at the commencement, and the estimated receipts of the last quarter, amount to \$31,297,512, and the expenditures are estimated to amount to \$32,025,070, leaving a deficiency of revenue of \$627,557 to be provided for. Of the twelve millions loan, \$5,432,726 only have been negotiated, and the President recommended an extension of the time for which it was to be granted.

The President recommended the revision of the tariff to Congress without any very definite expression of his own

views on the subject, farther than by impressing on the legislature the necessity of the spirit of compromise under which the last tariff law was passed.

He went on to speak of a plan for the management of the finances of Government, and the improvement of the currency and exchanges. Of this plan an abstract will be found below under the report of the Secretary of the Treasury.

The message expressed some very just and pertinent opinions, in regard to the debts of the states. It disavows any responsibility on the part of the general government, for those debts, but expresses a strong interest in the maintenance of the credit and good faith, of all the states.

Some recommendations contained in the reports of the War, Navy, and Post Office Departments, were alluded to in general terms, but the details of those affairs were left to be learned from those documents. The message concluded with a recommendation of some immediate provision for the appropriation of the Smithsonian fund to the objects for which it was given, and in calling the attention of Congress to the special interests of the District of Columbia.

The annual reports of the several departments were subsequently presented to Congress.

The *Secretary of the Navy* presented a report, which contains an interesting and judicious view of the state of his department, and the improvements which he would suggest.

The present force of the Navy is 11 ships of the line, of which one is of 120 guns, and the rest of 74 each; 15 frigates of the first class, one of which is rated at 54 guns, and the other 14 at 44, and two of the second class rated at 36 guns; 18 sloops of war, rated at 16 to 20 guns; 6 brigs and schooners of 10 guns each; 4 steamers; 3 store ships; 3 receiving vessels; and 5 small schooners.

The frigate Brandywine and sloops-of-war Fairfield and Preble are in the Mediterranean, under command of Commodore Morgan. The squadron in the Pacific, when Commodore Jones arrives there, who is expected to sail in the course of the next fortnight, will embrace the United States, the sloops-of-war St. Louis, Yorktown, Cyane, and Dale, and schooner Shark. The squadron on the Brazil station, on the arrival of the Delaware, 74, which left Hampton Roads on the 1st

of November, will consist of the Delaware, Potomac, Concord, Marion, Decatur, and Enterprise, under command of Commodore Morris. The West India Squadron, under command of Commodore Wilkinson, consisting of the Macedonian, the Vandalia, and Warren, now in the United States, having left the station for the hurricane season, will be ordered back as soon they can be furnished with crews. The Constellation and Boston, under command of Com. Kearney, are in the East Indies, despatches having been received from them at the Cape of Good Hope to July 31, 1841. The Exploring Squadron, under the command of Lieutenant Wilkes, was at the date of the last official despatches, Nov. 24, 1840, at the Sandwich Islands, undergoing repairs. This squadron, after visiting the north-west coast of America, is expected to return to the United States early in 1842. It is probable that later particulars have been received from Lieutenant Wilkes, since the date of the Secretary's report. A squadron of small schooners, under Lieutenant McLaughlin, is coöperating with the army in Florida. The Consort, Lieutenant Powell, has been employed in the survey of the coast, from Apalachicola to the Mississippi, and is now engaged in the survey of Nantucket South Shoal. The brig Dolphin, Commander Bell, and schooner Grampus, Lieutenant Paine, returned in May and August last, from their second cruise to the coast of Africa. The steamships Missouri and Mississippi, built at Philadelphia and New York, are nearly ready for service, and will form a part of the home squadron.

Orders have been given for the building of three steamers of medium size, at New York, Philadelphia, and Norfolk. In addition, a steamer of six hundred tons is to be built at Philadelphia, under the superintendence of Capt. R. F. Stockton, with Ericsson's propeller, and another at Norfolk, of 300 tons, by Lieutenant W. W. Hunter, to be propelled by submerged water wheels, invented by himself. Orders have been given for building a first class sloop, and three small vessels of war, and for finishing the frigates Cumberland, Savannah, Raritan, and St. Lawrence. Measures have also been taken for the construction of a steamer on Lake Erie.

The Secretary states that great difficulty is encountered in the enlistment of seamen; that the operation of the apprentice system is encouraging; that great

depredations are made on the live oak and red cedar timber, reserved for public use, on the public lands, in violation of the law; and that efforts to obtain American water-rotted hemp for the use of the Navy have been unsuccessful.

The Secretary states that *reform* is necessary in every part of the naval establishment, and he proceeds to specify many of the particulars, in which this reform is needed. He points out the great deficiency, and almost absence of any properly legalized code of laws and rules for the regulation of the service, and the gross *irregularity* of the mode in which the regulations actually in force were introduced. He says that the evils resulting from the want of a proper naval code are of the most serious character, and will, if not remedied, ultimately ruin the naval service. The next reform which he deems to be necessary, is in the "organization of the Navy Department." It is, he says, "in truth, not organized at all;" and he earnestly recommends immediate attention to the subject.

He urges at some length the importance of an increase of the Navy, as rapidly as the means at its disposal will admit. He expresses a decided opinion, that a very large part of the increase ought to consist of steam ships, and he gives the grounds of this opinion. He recommends that an experiment be made, in imitation of the example of England, which has proved successful, of building an iron steam ship. He thinks it not necessary to increase at present the number of line-of-battle ships, and that some of those which we have would be more useful, if cut down to frigates of the largest class, of which we need a largely increased number. The vessels for which there is the most pressing demand are sloops-of-war, brigs, and schooners; and he recommends that a suitable number be immediately built. Not less than ten, he says, are now necessary.

He repeats the recommendation of the establishment of higher grades of officers in the service, and urges its importance on a variety of grounds. A large increase of the marine corps, he pronounces to be absolutely necessary. The laws and regulations for the government of the marine corps require to be amended. He recommends strongly the establishment of naval schools, as a measure highly important. He recommends some provision in regard to the professors of mathematics now employed in the service.

He recommends the necessary appropriations for keeping a much greater number of ships in actual service, and expresses his approval of the estimates made by the Navy Commissioners. He recommends an appropriation for the purchase of lands, for an increase of the Navy Yard at Brooklyn. He expresses his approval of a prudent economy in all things, but considers true economy best consulted, by adopting freely that expenditure which is necessary for supporting the honor and glory of the country, and placing it in a state to defend itself against all hostile attacks.

The *Secretary of the Treasury* gave the account of the income and expenditure of the year, which we have mentioned above as contained in the Message. He proposes to make up the deficiency by an issue of Treasury notes.

For the next year (1842) the Receipts into the Treasury, (excluding the proceeds of the sales of public lands,) are estimated at \$19,200,000, from which is to be deducted \$627,559, the estimated deficiency at the end of the present year. The expenditures for the year, including the amount necessary to redeem seven millions of outstanding Treasury Notes, are estimated at \$32,791,010; leaving to be provided for, on account of the expenditure of 1842, the estimated sum of \$14,218,570.

To meet this deficiency in the revenue for 1842, the Secretary recommends to Congress to authorize an extension of the term of the portion of the twelve million loan not yet taken, and a reissue of the Treasury Notes heretofore authorized by law, amounting to \$5,000,000; the balance of the deficit in the ways and means, together with two millions of dollars, (a surplus deemed necessary to be in the Treasury to meet emergencies in the public service,) to be supplied from imposts upon such foreign articles imported into the United States "as may be selected with due regard to a rigid restriction, in amount, to the actual wants of the Government, and a proper economy in its administration."

The House of Representatives having called for the plan of an Exchequer, alluded to in the Message, the Secretary presented it. The following abstract contains the most important provisions:—

The bill proposes that there shall be established in the Treasury Department at the seat of Government a Board, to be

called the *Exchequer of the United States*, to be composed of the Secretary of the Treasury, the Treasurer of the United States, and three members to be appointed by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate. The three members first appointed to be for two, four, and six years, and as the terms respectively expire, their successors for six years. One of the three members to be appointed by the Board President, for two years; inferior officers, judged necessary by the Board, to be appointed by the Secretary of the Treasury, to receive salaries fixed by the Board; and give bonds as the Secretary of the Treasury may direct. The members, or Commissioners, to receive an annual salary of — dollars.

The Board of Exchequer is to have power to establish agencies or offices in such places as they may judge expedient, not exceeding two in any state or territory, and wherever Congress may require; and on the recommendation of the Board, the Secretary of the Treasury will appoint the necessary officers and agents. The Board to fix the rates of compensation, and to establish regulations for managing their agencies and rendering their accounts. The duties to be so arranged, and accounts so kept, that one officer or agent shall be a check upon the other. The Secretary of the Treasury to have the power of removal for physical inability or incompetency, or neglect or violation of duty, reporting his reasons therefor.

The Exchequer and its offices are to be the general agents of the Government, for receiving, keeping, disbursing, transferring and transmitting the public monies, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, and to them are to be paid all the public monies received from every source. The principal officers employed in the agencies to give bonds, in such amount and in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe. The Board or its agents to pay all warrants, drafts, or orders thereon by the Treasurer of the United States, and by the disbursing officers and agents of the Government, having authority to make the same. All payments to be made, at the option of the person entitled to receive it, in gold or silver coin, or in Treasury notes.

The Exchequer and its officers are to perform, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, the duties of commissioners of loans, disbursing agents, and pension agents.

It will be lawful for the Exchequer at the seat of Government, and its several agencies, to receive gold and silver coin or bullion, the property of individuals, on deposit, for convenience and security, and to issue certificates, attesting such deposit, which certificates shall be redeemed on presentation at the agency where delivered. The aggregate of deposits is never to exceed \$15,000,000, and this amount to be distributed by the Board among its agencies, according to the extent of their business respectively. No higher premium than one-half of one per cent. to be taken for such deposits, and issuing the certificates therefor. Paper issued by the Board and its agencies, whether in the form of bills or certificates of deposit, to be redeemable only at the place where issued, unless the Board shall see cause to order otherwise. It is made the duty of the Board to establish by-laws.

The Secretary of the Treasury is to have prepared Treasury Notes, of denominations not less than five dollars, nor greater than one thousand, to be signed by the Treasurer of the United States, countersigned by the President of the Board of Exchequer, and endorsed by the principal agent, of the agency at which they shall be issued, and redeemable in gold or silver at the agency where issued. Such notes, when issued at the Exchequer in Washington, to be endorsed by one of the Commissioners. All such notes when redeemed may be reissued by the board and its agencies.

The amount of such notes outstanding at any one time, not to exceed \$15,000,000, unless otherwise provided by law. The Secretary of the Treasury is authorized from time to time, on application of the board, to furnish for its own use and that of its agency, a suitable amount of such notes, to be issued in the transaction of its business. All dues to the United States may be paid in coin, in these treasury notes, or in the notes of banks immediately convertible into specie at the place where received.

The Exchequer at Washington and its agencies must settle weekly, or oftener, with all banks whose notes it may have received, and collect or pay all balances. No individual is to be allowed to stand debtor to the Exchequer or any of its agencies in account. The board and each of its agencies to limit its issues so that its gold and silver on hand shall be equal to

one third the amount of such issues outstanding.

The Exchequer may draw bills or drafts on any of its agencies, and the agencies, on one another or on the Exchequer, and sell such drafts at a premium not exceeding the fair cost of remitting specie to the place of payment, nor in any case exceeding two per cent. They may also purchase bills under certain regulations. 1st. The bills must be drawn on a place not in the same state or territory as the place of drawing, nor less than ——— miles distant. 2d. They shall not be drawn payable at a longer date than 30 days sight; nor if on places within 500 miles distance, longer than 30 days from date. No greater discount shall be made on such bills than at the rate of six per cent. per annum, together with the cost of remitting the specie, nor in any case more than two per cent. Neither the Board nor any agency shall purchase any bill, drawn by any member or officer of either, or in which any member or officer is interested; nor receive a deposit of any money belonging to any such officer or member. No purchase of a bill to be made by the board, but with the assent of two of its members, nor by any agency, but by the assent of two of its officers.

No agency in any state, shall receive private deposits, or sell or purchase bills, other than for the collection, transfer, or disbursement of the public funds, if forbidden so to do by a law of such state.

It is proposed that, if it shall be found necessary for carrying on the operations of the Board, the Secretary of the Treasury shall be authorized to issue certificates of stock of the United States, bearing five per cent. interest, payable semi-annually, and redeemable at the pleasure of the Government after 20 years. Said stocks to be delivered to the Exchequer Board, and sold for the purposes of said Board, which is required to provide for the payment of the interest and principal, the faith of the Government being also pledged for the payment of the same.

The Board of Exchequer is to keep two sets of books; one for all transactions relating to the collecting, keeping, and disbursing the public monies, and the other for its banking business. The profits on the banking, after paying salaries, to be placed semi-annually to the credit of the Treasurer of the United States, first re-

serving therefrom \$2,000,000 to meet all contingencies chargeable on the Exchequer and its agencies.

It is proposed farther that the Exchequer Board may employ any specie paying bank as its agent, but not with authority to receive deposits, nor to buy or sell exchange. Quarterly statements of the amount of Treasury Notes outstanding are to be published, by the Secretary of the Treasury. Any member or officer of the Exchequer Board, or of its agencies, who shall convert to his own use any money or securities of the government or of persons dealing with the Exchequer, shall be deemed guilty of felony, and on conviction be punished by imprisonment for a term not less than ——— years, nor more than ———, and by fine, equal to twice the sum embezzled. Any member, or officer, who shall give or sign a false certificate of deposit, fraudulently issue any bill or draft, make a false entry, or do any other act for improperly increasing the responsibility of the Board or Agency, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction, be liable to imprisonment for not less than one year nor more than seven, and to a fine equal to the amount of the false certificate, or draft, or the amount of the responsibility created.

We defer a notice of the reports of the Post Office and War Departments till the action of Congress on those subjects.

Congress has thus far taken no decided action on any of the subjects thus presented to them, the organization of the two Houses, and the debates on the proper reference of the different subjects having occupied them up to our latest dates, (the 27th of December.)

Mr. Linn proposed in the Senate a bill repealing the Distribution Law of the last session. On the 21st December the Senate refused to commit the bill by a vote of 18 to 24, and made it the special order for January 11th.

On the 23d of December the Committee on Ways and Means reported a bill for extending for one year the time for which the twelve million loan should be in the market; extending to twelve years the time within which it shall be optional to the Secretary to redeem it, and adding five millions to its amount.

INDEX

TO THE CONTENTS OF VOL. II.

	Page		Page
Abyssinia, Traveller in	186	Census, British	94
Acudia, steamship, arrived at Boston,	190	" United States,	156, 335
Aden, British Establishments at,	455, 556	Chantrey, Sir Francis, died,	559
Ainsworth, Wm., his life and character,	246	Chinese Affairs,	46, 232, 312, 374, 470, 474, 555
Albany and W. Stockbridge Railroad,	260	" Proclamations,	425
Alden Lieut., his letter,	33	" Account of Attack on Canton,	474
Alexandria, the Plague at	179	Clayton, Mr. chosen Senator of Delaware,	48
Amistad, decision in the case of	143	Cochin Chinese and Siamese War,	373
Amoy, expedition against,	555	Coffee, Cultivation in Liberia,	319
Antarctic Discoveries,	390	Colombian Revolutions,	145
Ararat, Mt. Earthquake at,	86	Columbia steam ship arr. at Boston,	48, 191, 335
Argentine Republics,	512	Commerce of Great Britain,	89
Arkansas Boundary established,	477	Congress, extra session called,	143
Army of the German Confederation,	43	" " met,	253
Artesian Well at Paris,	93	" " Proceedings,	327, 382, 479
Athens,	448, 545	" 2d session, Proceedings,	563
Attorney General, instructions to,	211	Congress, frigate, launched,	476
Austria, Government of	8	Constantinople, change of Ministry,	938
" Extent and Population,	10	Copy-Right in Prussia,	380
Badger's, Mr. Letter on his Resignation,	442	Cracow, garrison removed,	91
Balloon Excursion,	467	Creole, brig, captured by slaves,	560
Bank of France,	77, 186, 380, 534	Crittenden, Mr. Letter on his Resignation,	428
Bank Suspension, Philadelphia,	94	Cuba, Island of	125
" United States,	94, 96, 189	Cubzac, Bridge of	287
Bates, I. C. chosen Senator of Mass.,	48	Davis, Judge, resigned,	336
Bayard, R. H. chosen Senator of Delaware,	48	Debtor's Prison in Paris,	275
Belgium, Government of	53	Denmark, Government of	50
" Railroads of,	479	Diplomatic Appointments,	480
" Insurrection in,	558	Dublin, O'Connell chosen Mayor,	560
Bell, Mr. Letter on his Resignation,	436	Earthquake at Mt. Ararat,	86
Births, Deaths, and Marriages of G. Britain,	535	" at New York,	94
Bohemia, Produce of	45	" at West Indies,	466
Bolivar, Gen.	146	Ecuador, state of,	150, 466
Bolivia and Peru, Revolution in	233	Egypt, Mail route through	133
Bogotá,	233	" Pashalic of	139
Boucherie, M., his method of preserving wood,	131	Election, Charter, in New York,	191
Boundary between R. Island and Mass.,	102	Elections in several states,	192, 478, 562
Brazil, Emperor's Coronation,	475	Electrotype,	80
Breckenridge, John, his death,	476	Episcopus, Simon	249
Brewster, Wm.	243	Erigone, French frigate	186
Britannia, arrival of	96	Erie, steamer, burnt,	475
British Ministry defeated,	234, 326	Epartero chosen sole Regent of Spain,	234
" and Foreign Postage,	468	European Politics,	415
" Foreign Ambassadors,	558	Evans, Geo. chosen Senator of Maine,	48
Broadway R. forced,	316	Ewing, Mr. Letter on his Resignation,	390
Brown, Capt. indicted for Manslaughter,	477	Exchequer, Frauds,	558
Budget,	447	Exploring Expedition, American	31
Buenos Ayres,	44, 138, 323, 466, 511	" " British,	37
Cabinet, appointment of	141	Feejee Islands,	31, 36
" dissolution of,	428, 480	Fernando Po. cession to Great Britain,	382
" British,	446, 469	Fiscal Corporation Bill,	479
Cadwallader, Gen. T. his death,	477	Flores, Gen. President of Ecuador,	153
Canada, Union declared,	91	Forayth, John, his death,	477
" first Assembly met,	327, 475	Fossil Remains,	421
Candia, Insurrection in,	324, 464	Fox, Mr., Letter to Mr. Webster,	199
Canton, Capture of	312, 374, 470	France, Government of	11
Cardigan, Earl, trial of	92	" Extent and Population,	13
Caroline steamboat, attacked and burned,	197	" Military Budgets of	232

	Page		Page
French Finance,	47, 470	Massachusetts Ch. Mec. Association,	478
" Army,	324	" Government of,	47
" Commerce,	543	" Legislature Prorogued,	143
Freshet in Middle States,	48	" Railroads, present extent,	264
Fusee, newly-invented,	452	" Banks,	560
Gale, violent, on N. E. coast,	476	" State Election,	563
Georgia, State Election in,	478, 562	Mayaguez, great fire at,	139
Gilmer, Gov. resigned,	144	McLeod, correspondence about,	47, 199
Governor Fenner ship, sunk,	92	" his arrest, its circumstances and	
Grand Junction Railway,	88, 349	causes,	94, 193
Great Britain, Government of,	14	his trial,	238, 336, 476
" Extent and Population,	18, 538	Meat, new method of preserving,	181
Great Western, steamship arrived,	192, 336	Mehemet Ali, his reinvestiture,	139, 326
" Railway,	344	" his tribute,	556
Greece, New ministry,	378	Mellen, Judge, Death of,	47
" Government of,	420	Meteors of November,	540
Greenough's Statue of Washington,	460	Mexico, Cabinet of,	324
Gregory, Olynthus, his death,	90	" change of government,	556
Grogan, his seizure,	477	Mississippi steam frigate,	237
Guizot on European Politics,	415	Monte Video,	44
Harrison, President, inauguration of,	141	" naval action at,	466
" Death of,	187	Murder at St. Louis,	235, 336
" House burned,	191	Musket, improved,	253
Harvard University,	58	National Fast,	238
Havana Sugar and Coffee Crop,	46	National Theatre burned at New York,	238
Heurteloup, his improved Musket,	253	Navy Island occupied by Canadian rebels,	194
Hillhouse, James A., Death of,	48	Nemesis Steamer, Voyage to India,	84
Holland, present condition of,	497	" her performances in China,	284
Hong Kong,	232, 285	Netherlands, Government of,	51
Hook, Theodore, died,	466	" Ex-King married,	91
Hungary and Transylvania,	358	present condition of,	497
Illinois State Bank robbed,	336	Neutrality constantly preserved by the U. S.,	209
Implement of War, new invention,	137	New Grenada,	145, 233, 465
Inauguration of Gen. Harrison,	141	New Orleans, yellow fever at,	477
India, overland route to,	133	New South Wales,	458
" Internal Improvement in,	552	New York Canals, trade on,	561
Indians, emigration of,	144	" State Election,	563
Indiana, State finances,	336, 561	Nile, steam Navigation of,	134, 177, 463
Iron War Steamers,	283	Norway, Government of,	50
Iron Ore at Duane, New York,	81	Norwich & Boston, railroad passage between,	268
" Lighthouse,	457	Obando, insurrection in Colombia,	153
Jamaica Currency,	94	O'Connell, chosen Lord Mayor of Dublin,	559
Japan,	214	Organic Remains in Alabama,	421
Java, Volcanic Eruption,	185	Oriental Question settled,	47
Jerusalem Christians,	377	Paez, Insurrection in Colombia,	146
Johnson, Francis, his life and Character,	247	Paragon ship, collision with Susquehannah,	334
Joinville, Prince de, at New York,	477	Paris Revenue and Trade,	380
Kentucky, Congressional Election,	192	Parliament,	381, 469
" Finances,	562	Parliamentary Report on Railway Regulation,	38
Keshen, execution ordered,	375	Pennsylvania Revenue and Relief bill,	236, 336
Kilauea, Volcano in,	320	" State Election,	192
Khivah,	182	Peru and Bolivia, Revolution,	233, 324
Lahore, Revolution in,	233, 324	Penobscot River, clear of ice,	191
Liverpool and Manchester Railway,	88, 350	Philadelphia Bank Resumptions,	48
Locomotive performance,	89	" Bank Suspension,	94
London and Birmingham Railway,	348	Pilgrims, residence in Holland,	241
" Brighton, "	340	" landing celebrated,	562
" Greenwich, "	341	Plague at Alexandria,	179
" South Western, "	343	Plitt, Mr. his Mail report,	97
" New churches,	381	Population of Great Britain,	538
Lorenzo Stark,	288, 362, 395, 524	Portugal, Government of,	55
Low fares on Belgian Railroads,	486	Postage, British and Foreign,	469
Mackenzie, leader of Canadian Insurrection,	194	Post Office, in England and France,	97
Macomb, Gen. died,	335	President, votes counted,	95
Madeira, Water Works at,	175	" Steamer, arrival of,	140
Magnetic Observations,	37	" missing,	191
" Pole,	394	Prince born, heir to the British throne,	559
Mail Robbers arrested,	48	Prison, Debtor's, in Paris,	275
Maine, Government of,	48	" Model, in London,	278, 445
" Senator,	48	Proclamation against frontier conspiracies,	447
Map of the Boundary of Mass. and R. Island,	106	Produce of Bohemia,	45, 445
" of Charles River, and the adjacent country,	116	Prussia, Government of,	5
" of Colombia in Departments,	152	" Extent and Population,	7, 380
" " Provinces,	155	" Finances,	92
" of Western Railroad and adjacent country,	256	" Law of Copy-right,	280
" of English Railroads,	352	Queen of G. Britain's Speech,	47
" of Antarctic Discoveries,	372	Railroad, Emperor's in Austria,	28

	Page		Page
Railroad Regulations in England,	38	Sugar Exported from Cuba,	130
Railroads in Italy,	89	Susquehanna ship, collision with Paragon,	334
" Amsterdam and Harlem,	90	Sweden and Norway, Government of,	49
" Grand Junction and Liv. and Manch.,	88	Sydenham, Lord, his death,	475
Railroads in England,	337	Syria, Insurrection in,	324, 464
" in Massachusetts,	252	Tanning Leather, New Discovery,	270
" in Belgium,	479	Texas, public debt,	464
Resignation of members of the Cabinet,	480	" Presidential Election,	560
Revenue bill,	479	Texeira, Capt. his water works,	175
Revenue of Great Britain and France,	88	Thames Steamer lost,	87
Rhode Island Boundary,	102	" Inundation of,	557
" Banks,	561	" Tunnel,	559
Rio Janeiro,	323	Tower of London, fire in,	559
Rives, Wm. C. chosen Senator from Va.,	48	Transylvania and Hungary,	355
Rocafuerte, President of Ecuador,	153	Tunnel, Box,	345
Rolfo, leader of Canadian Insurrection,	197	Turkey, Government of,	57
Rome, benevolent and scientific institutions,	550	" Insurrections in,	325
Ronaldson, Hon. James, Death of,	187	" and Egypt,	139, 326, 382
Rosas, Dictator of Buenos Ayres,	514	Two Sicilies, Government of,	56
Ross, J. C. Capt. Exploring Expedition,	34, 390	Tyler, President, his inauguration,	190
Russia, Government of,	1	U. S. Bank, suspension,	94
" Extent and Population,	3, 386	" Memorial of,	96
" under Nicholas I.,	385	" statement to stockholders,	189
" Productions of,	387	" Application to Penn. Legislature,	335
" Army,	388	Van Rensselaer, Commander of Navy Islanders,	195
" Internal Improvements,	389	Vargas, President of Venezuela,	153
Sardinia, Government of,	50	Vermont Legislature met,	477
Saurian Remains in Alabama,	421	Versailles,	309
Savannah steamboat lost,	560	Virginia Senator,	48
Saw-Mill, portable,	444	" Governor resigned,	144
Scotland, Representative Peers,	470	" State Election,	192
Scott, Gen. appointed Commander-in-Chief,	336	Venezuela,	146, 149, 466
Secretary of State, his circular,	144	Volcanic Eruption in Java,	185
Senate, U. S. meeting and list of,	142	" " Sandwich Islands,	320
Siamese and Cochín Chinese, war between,	373	Voyage of Steamer Nemesis,	84
Siebold Dr., researches in Japan,	214	Water Works at Madeira,	175
Silver Coinage in Great Britain,	186	Weaving, new invention,	93
Southeastern Railway,	338	Webster Mr., Letter to Mr. Fox,	203
Spain, Government of,	54	" Instructions to Att. General,	211
" Insurrection in,	556	Welles, Samuel, death of,	470
Spanish Steam Frigates,	192	Western Railroad,	252
" Regency,	234	" " open to Albany,	562
" Ministry,	325	Wilkie, Sir David, died,	326
Sparks, Mr. return from Europe,	192	Wilkes, Lieut. his letter,	31
Springfield and Hartford Railroad,	264	William Brown, lost at sea,	236
Statistics of Massachusetts,	156	Winthrop, T. L. death of,	96
Steam Coaches on common roads,	453	Wings of Icarus,	19, 68, 119, 161, 222
Steam Engine Explosions,	94	Wood, new method of preserving,	131
Steam Navigation of the Nile,	134, 177, 463	Worcester Railroad, its expenses,	261
Stockport Viaduct,	45	Young's Chronicles of the Pilgrims reviewed,	241
Stock of Sugar and Coffee raised in Cuba,	46	Yucatan,	233, 324, 464
Sugar Manufactories in France,	90	Zante, Earthquake in,	185

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